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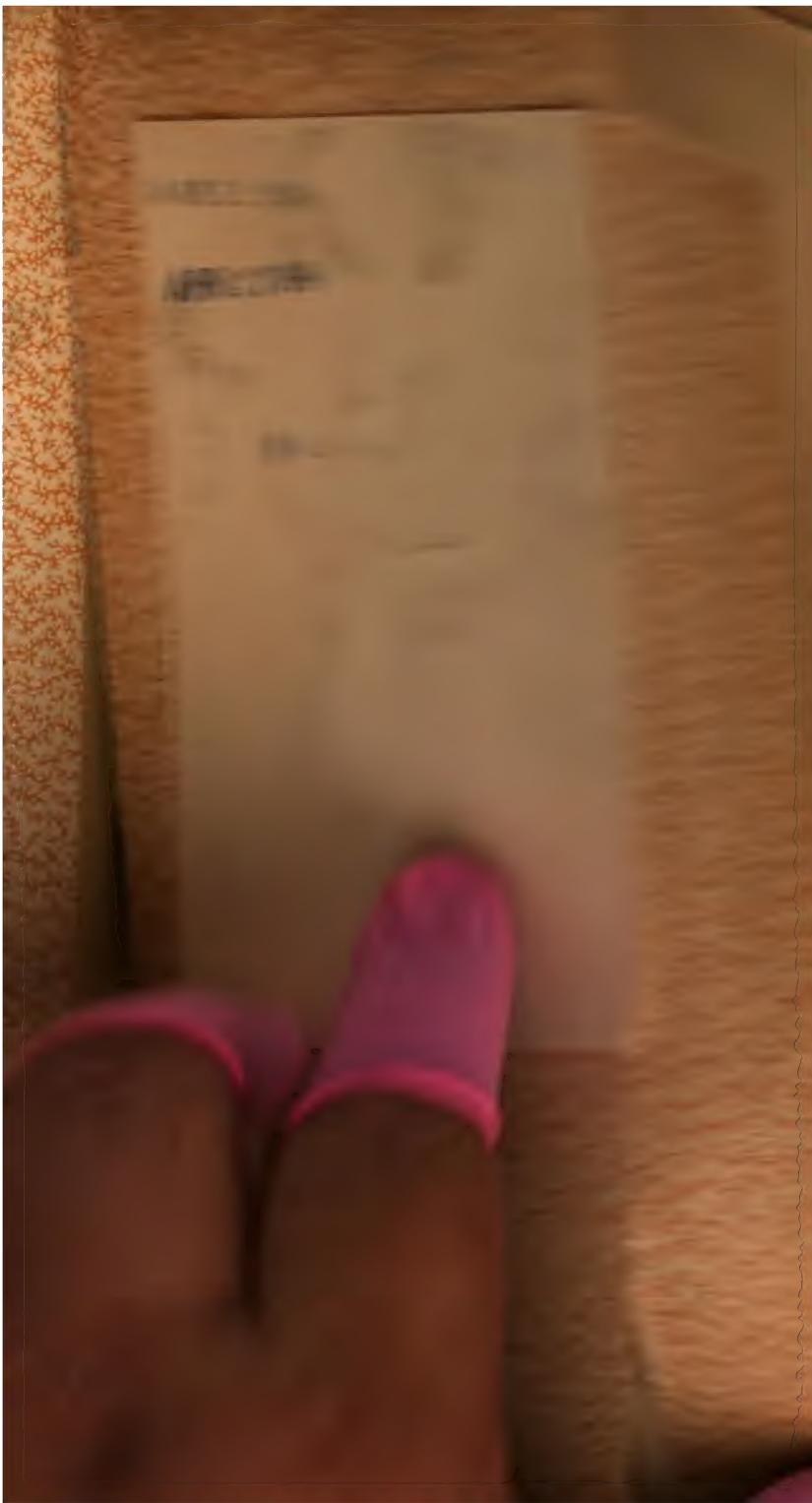
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With an APPENDIX.

Words are the counters of wise men, and the money of fools.

HORACE.

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T A B L E

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

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For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c. of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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ERRATA in Vol. XXXI.

- Page 15. l. 4. for 'Travels,' read *Travellers*.
 35. l. 4-3. from bot. read, one of the number.
 51. l. 9. for 'are,' read *is*.
 53. l. 14. for 'Antiquates,' read *Antiquitates*.
 79. par. 2. l. 6. for 'sepulchar,' read *sepulchral*.
 103. the price of Art. 39. should be *6d.* not *6s*.
 204. l. 14. from bot. for '17 articles,' read *17th article*; and in the next line, for 'are,' read *is*.
 222. l. 8. for 'breathe,' read *breatb*.
 261. l. 6. for 'augmentation,' read *argumentation*.
 309. l. 9. from bot. for 'reputable,' read *respectable*.
 359. l. 14. from bot. for 'pulchritudini,' read *pulchritudine*.
 418. l. 16. for 'now Secretary,' read *father of the present Secretary*.
 425. note, for 'ferra,' read *ferr*.
 426. l. 11. from bot. for 'who wish,' read *who would wish*.
 434. l. 20. for 'process,' read *processes*.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JANUARY, 1800.

ART. I. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, Vol. IV.*
4to. pp. 480. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies, London;
Dickson, and Balfour, Edinburgh. 1798.

TO pay due honour to the illustrious dead, by preserving the remembrance and thus prolonging the influence of great virtues and singular talents, is a duty which we ought gladly to impose on ourselves. It is a duty, too, of which the world thankfully acknowledges the performance, by displaying a solicitude for all accounts relative to good and wise men, which is at the same time a just tribute paid to departed excellence. This eagerness is in course proportional to the reputation of those whose history is related. It is no idle curiosity which incites us to inspect the hours of relaxation, and of friendly converse, of one whose writings taught mankind to think, to judge, and to act; and which induces us to listen to what he said wisely or wittily, to his sentences of observation and his sallies of raillery." It is no weak motive which makes us desirous of knowing whether he, who demonstrated how the universe is poised and regulated, was on other subjects superior to the rest of mankind; and whether he settled the nature of moral duty with peculiar nicety of discernment and exactness of judgment,—or could, when occasion demanded, persuade to virtue, exalt affection, and exhilarate despondency.

In all large societies, there is a considerable portion of men who are wise and virtuous to a certain extent; only possessing talents somewhat above mediocrity, discharging their ordinary duties with propriety, cautiously prudent rather than zealously benevolent, never inordinately depraved nor splendidly good. Of such persons, the opinions are rather not to be controverted than to be admired; their observations are generally made on the surface of things; their minds, not enterprizing nor excursive, are confined to the beaten and common tracts of human knowledge; and if, in their writings, truth receives a

new form and some new embellishments, she cannot boast of any great augmentation of her substance and riches.

Men of this description are esteemed, and deservedly; their friends and acquaintance cherish their memory: but their contemporaries and posterity, while regarding their lives with approbation, must view their history with an alloy of indifference; it contains little that is extraordinary, interesting, or brilliant; and, if variegated, only by trivial events, and by the common griefs and pleasures which daily happen to thousands.

When is biography interesting?—when it excites curiosity by reporting the little things of great men; rouses attention by splendid events and busy scenes; elevates affection by tales of distress or goodness; excites to virtue by records of eminent excellence; raises mirth by witty sayings and humorous anecdotes; or when it enlarges knowledge and corrects judgment by profound remarks and curious criticisms.

These observations, which are sufficiently obvious, occurred to us during the perusal of the biographical portion of the present volume, which is divided, as usual, into three parts; containing the *History*, the *Appendix*, and the *Memoirs*.—In the first, among other matters, we find notice of a method, suggested by the Rev. Mr. Fisher, for solving all cases of plane and spherical triangles; which is more commodious than the methods of Napier and Pingré.—The *Appendix* contains the lives of Lord Abercromby, one of the Senators of the College of Justice; of Wm. Tytler, Esq.; of Mr. Wm. Hamilton, late Professor of Anatomy and Botany, at Glasgow; and of John Roebuck, M.D.

The materials for this biographical part, looking to the interest which they can excite, appear to us scanty and inefficacious; and we have to wish that the little which was to be said had been said in a different manner. We would willingly exchange the general terms and long phrases, which seem to involve virtues and talents that were splendid and various, for distinct instances of goodness, and evident specimens of mental ability; we would resign abstract designations, in order to gain sensible images. As the lives are now written, we might venture to say, without fearing any very severe retort for want of feeling and judgment, that the perusal of them has made us neither merrier, wiser, nor better; and that characters, so obscurely portrayed, impress the mind for a moment faintly and confusedly, and then leave it without a clear object of admiration or a specific model of imitation.

May we not indulge a reasonable hope that the Society of Edinburgh will cease to doom learning and genius to labour on unprofitable

unprofitable subjects? and that, when they have (as undoubtedly they frequently have had) deceased merit to exhibit and to praise, they would not shew its faint, distorted, and enlarged image through the mist of thick panegyric, but give to it a palpable substance, a distinct and sensible shape.—We will not count the worthy men of England against those of Scotland: but, if the panegyric of every Englishman, distinguished for his talents and good qualities, were published, who would not complain of the superfatation of the press? The evil might indeed cure itself, by generating a new one; and, since so few biographical accounts could be interesting, all would be alike neglected.

Dismissing this part of the volume with these remarks, we shall proceed to give an account of the *Memoirs*.

THE PHYSICAL CLASS

Opens with a long paper entitled *Account of a Mineral from Strontian, and of a peculiar Species of Earth which it contains*. By Thomas Charles Hope, M. D. F. R. S. Edinburgh. Professor of Medicine, Glasgow.

The substance of this paper having been printed in the 3d volume of the Society, and reported in our account of it, (see Rev. vol. xix. N.S. p. 242.) we need not now detain our readers with a more extended account of it.

Observations on the Natural History of Guiana. By William Lochead, Esq.—These observations relate to the Coasts, Winds, Dews, Temperature, Seasons, Country, Savannahs, Rivers, Creeks, and Floods; and they will, no doubt, be useful to the historian of Guiana. The remarks made on the subject of Creeks are particularly deserving of notice:

‘ *Creeks*.—A number of creeks fall into the Demerary on both sides, but so small that they bear no proportion to the size of the river. You can hardly distinguish their mouths in the woods which overhang the banks. They are so narrow that it is difficult to run a small boat in them; yet you will find in them throughout from two and a half to four fathom water, and they run winding so far back that it will take five, six, eight hours, or more, to carry you up to their heads, where they terminate in small streams from among the sand-hills. The banks of the creeks at their mouths are of the same height as those of the river close by, from five perhaps to twelve feet above the water in the dry season. As you ascend the creek, you might naturally expect to find them rise. It is however the very reverse; they become gradually lower and lower, till at last all round them is a swamp; and the trees on each side in like manner become smaller and smaller, and of different species from what they were. It is now in short exactly a mangrove swamp, with this difference, that the water is quite fresh, the vegetables are not the same, and there

are abundance of arunis and other low herbaceous plants. A little higher up, you lose the wood altogether, and find yourself in a beautiful deep canal, winding through a spacious wet savannah, which is sometimes many leagues in circumference. The first time we went up one of these creeks, (called Camouni), I was surprised at this appearance, and thought it must be a mere local circumstance peculiar to it. We found afterwards the same in one or two more instances, and were satisfied upon enquiry, that it is common to them all. It was natural to look for an explanation of this phenomenon, and I soon found it in one of those laws, which probably extend to all rivers subject to frequent inundations. It has been observed, in particular, of the Ganges *, that the banks of that river are higher than the adjacent lands at a distance from the stream, owing, no doubt, to the annual depositions of mud, &c. during the swell of the river. Apply the same rule to the Demerary, and the difficulty will be solved. The wet savannah behind, and the swampy woods around them, are the body of the low country at its natural level, scarcely a foot or two above the sea. Whatever additional height the land has in the vicinity of the river, from the time you have ascended about twenty miles or so, is all acquired. It has arisen from the sediment of the river during the rainy season, when the country is overflowed so as that all the lower part of it is under water. This deposition must be always more copious, in proportion as it is nearer the stream, where additional quantities are always brought, and where it is kept in motion both by the current and the tide. Every thing which we afterwards saw confirmed this theory, and nothing more directly than the canals which run out at right angles from the river. Some of these extend four miles inward, and they prove to a demonstration, that the land becomes lower and lower the farther you recede from the river. The maps of the colonies confirm it; for in all of them the main body of the low land of Guiana is laid down as savannah, and the woody country, which a stranger or superficial observer would suppose to be the whole or much the greater part of it, is in fact only a border on the sides of the rivers and of the sea, but of considerable breadth, more or less, in proportion to the size of the adjoining river, or, which is generally the same thing, to the acquired height and extent of the soil on either bank. It followed as a consequence, and, as far as we had opportunities of observing, we found it to be the case, that the low land was somewhat higher, and continued so farther down, about the Essequibo than the Demerary; the woods consequently were of greater extent. We found, besides, in the soil adjoining the Essequibo, at least upon the east side, a mixture of sand. The river is full of sand-banks; and it appears, that the finer parts of even this less suspensible substance are raised by the floods and carried among the adjacent woods to be deposited with the mud. The Mahayka, a small river or creek which falls into the sea about twenty or thirty miles to the eastward of the Demerary, though it runs a long way up the country, and spreads into many branches, has but a

* * Account of the Ganges, &c. Phil. Trans. 1781, by M. RENNELL.

very narrow, and often interrupted border of wood upon its banks; it runs through an immense savannah, and so do its branches, with little or no wood, till they approach the sand-hills. The Deltas of the river of Oroonoko, and its numerous mouths, make a figure even in the map of the world. It is to be regretted, that its noble stream has been so long hid from science. What I learned in Trinidad from a gentleman, who had sailed from its mouth to the Angusturas, about 300 miles up, confirms and illustrates, in the fullest manner, the above general rule. The western mouths of it opposite Trinidad, are navigable only for launches drawing six or seven feet water. At and opposite them, the bottom is shallow and muddy, and the coast a low mangrove swamp, resembling, in all respects, that of Guiana. You must ascend those branches several days before you reach the main stream; and in doing so, you find the same phenomena as in ascending the Demerary, but in a still greater degree. At first you have the mangrove, or some similar swamp, and behind it on both sides for about twenty leagues, the land, if you can call it so, hardly emerging from the water. Afterwards the ground appears; and, as you go up, rises still higher and higher on the banks above the common level of the stream. The trees become, in the same manner, of different species, and much taller than they were below. The channel in which you are, from being wide, grows narrower by degrees. It is from about one and a half to three-fourths of a mile broad near the entrance; and, when it joins the main stream, is not more than about 200 yards. It has then acquired a considerable depth, and the banks may be about twenty feet high. Along the main stream of the river, or Boca de Nasios; the gradual rise, and other circumstances attending it, are quite similar. All this height of the bank, I can make no doubt, is entirely acquired ground, formed by the sediment of the floods, greater near the streams than at a distance from them; and though I have no knowledge of the nature of the land in the Deltas and their vicinity, I would not hesitate to say, that great part of the interior body of each island, and most probably of the main on either side, where it is low country, consists of nothing else than wet savannahs.

A short Paper on the Principles of the antecedental Calculus.
By James Glenie, Esq. M.A. F.R.S. London and Edinb.

This memoir is said to be published at the suggestion of the author's friends, in order to elucidate and establish more firmly the principles of the antecedental calculus. The nature of the paper, and its reference to other works, nearly preclude both extract and comment. The principles of the fluxionary calculus have not, till of late years, been clearly and rightly established: but, whatever advantages the antecedental calculus may possess over the fluxionary in extent of application, it is inferior to it in evidence. If Mr. Glenie has arrived at truth, he has travelled to it by an entangled and abrupt path.

In the latter part of the memoir, the author promises soon to give the application of his calculus to several physical problems

blems of importance ; and to shew that, as it furnishes a greater variety of ways for expressing antecedentials than the fluxionary calculus does for fluxions, so it will open new and extensive rules for finding antecedents, as yet altogether unknown in the inverse method of fluxions.

Observations on the Trigonometrical Tables of the Brahmins. By John Playfair, F. R. S. Ed. Professor of Mathematics, Edinb. The principles and rules of the trigonometry of the Brahmins are contained in the Surya Siddhanta, one of the inspired writings of the Hindoos : a book which, with sedate and strict science, interweaves many wild and extravagant fictions. The subject of the present memoir is the construction of the trigonometrical tables in that work.

In the beginning of his paper, the Professor offers a reason why the division of the circumference was made into 360 parts, both in Greece and Hindostan : he supposes that the inventors of the circular instruments for measuring the heavens were naturally led to a division of them, which should correspond to the space daily described by the sun in the ecliptic ; and this was nearly to be effected by making each division one 360th part of the whole circumference. This reason appears more probable from the Chinese division of the circle into 365 parts and $\frac{1}{4}$.

Ptolemy and the Greek mathematicians had two measures for arches and chords : the former were parts of the circumference, the latter of the radius : but the Brahmins, adopting, it would seem, the notions of an advanced science, used only one measure for arches, chords, and sines, &c. The circumference was divided into 21600 parts, of which the radius contained 3438.

The trigonometrical tables contained in the treatise previously mentioned are two, the one consisting of sines, the other of versed sines : the use of sines was unknown to the Greeks, who calculated by chords. In the first table, are given the sines to every twenty-fourth part of the quadrant ; in the 2d table, the versed sines : the sines are expressed in minutes of the circumference, without any fraction of a minute : but there is a reason for thinking, as Mr. Playfair observes, that this want of exactness did not originate from any inability in the Hindoo mathematicians to advance their calculations nearer to the truth.

The following extract contains the rules for constructing their tables :

‘ Their rules for constructing their tables of sines, may be reduced to two, viz. the one for finding the sine of the least arch in the table, that

that of $3^{\circ}.45'$, and the other for finding the sines of the multiples of that arch, its triple, quadruple, &c. Both of these Mr. Davis has translated, judging very rightly, that it was impossible to give two more curious specimens of the geometrical knowledge of the Hindoo philosophers: the first is extracted from a commentary on the *Surya Siddhanta*; the other from the *Surya Siddhanta* itself.

'With respect to the first, the method proceeds by the continual bisection of the arch of 30° , and correspondent extractions of the square root, to find the sine and co-sine of the half, the fourth part, the eighth part, and so on, of that arch. The rule, when the sine of an arch is given, to find that of half the arch, is precisely the same with our own: "The sine of an arch being given, find the co-sine, and thence the versed sine, of the same arch: then multiply half the radius into the versed sine, and the square root of the product is the sine of half the given arch." Now, as the sine of 30° , was well known to those mathematicians to be half the radius, it was of consequence given: thence, by the rule just laid down, was found the sine of 15° , then of $7^{\circ}.30'$, and lastly of $3^{\circ}.45'$, which is the sine required. Thus the sine of $3^{\circ}.45'$, would be found equal to $224.44''$, as above observed, and, the sine of $7^{\circ}.30'$, equal to $448.39''$, and, taking the nearest integers, the first was made equal to 225, and the second to 449*.

'When, by the bisections that have just been described, the sine of $3^{\circ}.45'$, or of 225', was found equal to 225', the rest of the table was constructed by a rule, that, for its simplicity and elegance, as well as for some other reasons, is entitled to particular attention. It is as follows: "Divide the first jyapinda, 225' by 225; the quotient 1, deducted from the dividend, leaves 224', which added to the first jyapinda, or sine, gives the second, or the sine of $7^{\circ}.30'$, equal to 449'. Divide the second jyapinda, which is thus found, by 225, and deduct 2, the nearest integer to the quotient, from the former remainder 224', and this new remainder 222', added to the second jyapinda,

* By such continual bisections, the Hindoo mathematicians, like those of Europe before the invention of infinite series, may have approximated to the ratio of the diameter to the circumference, and found it to be nearly that of 1 to 3.1416 as above observed. A much less degree of geometrical knowledge than they possessed, would inform them, that small arches are nearly equal to their sines, and that the smaller they are, the nearer is this equality to the truth. If, therefore, they assumed the radius, equal to 1, or any number at pleasure, after carrying the bisection of the arch of 30° , two steps farther than in the above construction, they would find the sine of the 384th part of the circle, which, therefore, multiplied by 384, would nearly be equal to the circumference itself, and would actually give the proportion of 1 to 3.14159, as somewhat greater than that of the diameter to the circumference. By carrying the bisections farther, they might verify this calculation, or estimate the degree of its exactness, and might assume the ratio of 1 to 3.1416 as more simple than that just mentioned, and sufficiently near to the truth.'

will give the third jyapinda equal to 671'. Divide this last by 225, and subtract 3, the nearest integer to the quotient, from the former remainder 222', and there will be left 219', which, added to the third jyapinda, gives the fourth; and so on unto the twenty-fourth or last."

Making a slight change in the enunciation of the rule, the Professor demonstrates the principle on which it is founded; which may be thus generally stated:—If there be three arches in arithmetical progression, the sine of the middle arch is to the sum of the sines of the two extreme arches, as the sine of the difference of the arches to the sine of twice that difference. Mr. P. remarks that

“ This theorem is well known in Europe; it is justly reckoned a very remarkable property of the circle; and it serves to shew, that the numbers in a table of sines constitute a series, in which every term is formed exactly in the same way, from the two preceding terms, viz. by multiplying the last by a certain, constant number, and subtracting the last but one from the product.

“ Now, it is worth remarking, that this property of the table of sines, which has been so long known in the East, was not observed by the mathematicians of Europe till about two hundred years ago. The theorem, indeed, concerning the circle, from which it is deduced, under one shape or another, has been known to them from an early period, and may be traced up to the writings of Euclid, where a proposition nearly related to it forms the 97th of the *Data*: “ If a straight line be drawn within a circle given in magnitude, cutting off a segment containing a given angle, and if the angle in the segment be bisected by a straight line produced till it meet the circumference; the straight lines, which contain the given angle, shall both of them together have a given ratio to the straight line which bisects the angle.” This is not precisely the same with the theorem which has been shewn to be the foundation of the Hindoo rule, but differs from it only by affirming a certain relation to hold among the chords of arches, which the other affirms to hold of their sines. It is given by Euclid as useful for the construction of geometrical problems; and trigonometry being then unknown, he probably did not think of any other application of it. But what may seem extraordinary is, that when, about 400 years afterwards, Ptolemy, the astronomer, constructed a set of trigonometrical tables, he never considered Euclid's theorem, though he was probably not ignorant of it, as having any connection with the matter he had in hand. He, therefore, founded his calculations on another proposition, containing a property of quadrilateral figures inscribed in a circle, which he seems to have investigated on purpose, and which is still distinguished by his name. This proposition comprehends in fact Euclid's, and of course the Hindoo theorem, as a particular case; and though this case would have been the most useful to Ptolemy, of all others, it appears to have escaped his observation; on which account he did not perceive that every number in his tables might be calculated from the two preceding numbers,

numbers, by an operation extremely simple, and every where the same; and therefore his method of constructing them is infinitely more operose and complicated than it needed to have been.

Not only did this escape Ptolemy, but it remained unnoticed by the mathematicians, both Europeans and Arabians, who came after him, though they applied the force of their minds to nothing more than to trigonometry, and actually enriched that science by a great number of valuable discoveries. They continued to construct their tables by the same methods which Ptolemy had employed, till about the end of the sixteenth century, when the theorem in question, or that on which the Hindoo rule is founded, was discovered by Vieta. We are however ignorant by what train of reasoning that excellent geometer discovered it; for though it is published in his *Traité sur les Angles Sections*, it appears there not with his own demonstration, but with one given by an ingenious mathematician of our own country, Alexander Anderson of Aberdeen. It was then regarded as a theorem entirely new, and I know not that any of the geometers of that age remarked its affinity to the propositions of Euclid and Ptolemy. It was soon after applied in Europe, as it had been so many ages before in Hindostan, and quickly gave to the construction of the trigonometrical canon all the simplicity which it seems capable of attaining. From all this, I think it might fairly be concluded, even if we had no knowledge of the antiquity of the Surya Siddhanta, that the trigonometry contained in it is not borrowed from Greece or Arabia, as its fundamental rule was unknown to the geometers of both those countries, and is greatly preferable to that which they employed.

The latter part of this excellent memoir is employed in ascertaining the date of the Surya Siddhanta, and the origin of the mathematical sciences in India. Trigonometry cannot be supposed to have been introduced till considerable advancements had been made in geometry and astronomy. The first step in astronomy was made in Greece, 1140 years before the Christian æra; and Hipparchus invented trigonometry 130 years before the same æra. If, therefore, the age of the Surya Siddhanta be taken at 2000 years before Christ, we must add 1000 more to arrive at the origin of the sciences in India: which will thus appear to be placed near the celebrated period of the Caly Yug, the year 3:02 before our æra. It is to this æra that M. Bailly, in his *antient Astronomy*, refers the construction of the tables in Hindostan.

Some Geometrical Porisms, with Examples of their Application to the Solution of Problems. By Mr. William Wallace, Assistant Teacher of the Mathematics in the Academy of Perth. Communicated by Mr. Playfair.—The subject of porisms has been amply, ingeniously, and learnedly discussed in a former volume by the communicator of this paper*. The present memoir

* See Rev. vol. xix. N. S. p. 243.

will not be unacceptable to those mathematicians who have perused that of Mr. Playfair.

Determination of the Latitude and Longitude of the Observatory at Aberdeen. By John Andrew Mackay, LL. D. F. R. S. Ed. These papers display considerable labour, but do not admit of our making any abstract from them.

An Account of certain Motions which small lighted Wicks acquire, when swimming in a Bason of Oil; together with Observations upon the Phenomena tending to explain the Principles upon which such Motions depend: communicated in a Letter from Patrick Wilson, F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Practical Astronomy in the University of Glasgow, to John Playfair, F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh.

It would be a just reproach of philosophy, if it should confine itself to the contemplation of the grand operations of nature, and disdain to attend to the causes of common appearances; nevertheless, there is still such a thing as trifling in philosophy. We heartily wish Professor Wilson much amusement with his floating lights;—his minikin lamps, we observe, are treated in rather lofty language.

Account of a singular Halo of the Moon. By Wm. Hall, Esq. of White-Hall near Berwick, F. R. S. Edinburgh.

After a mild day, and in a pretty clear evening, the moon shining bright, on the 18th February 1796, a large and a small halowere observed from the author's residence, about the moon; the diameter of the larger one subtending an angle of a hundred and twelve degrees, that of the small one being under 12° and more than 8° .—Mr. Hall concludes by remarking:

'This halo appears to be of the kind called by the learned a *Corona*; and as it somewhat resembles the famous one of the sun, observed at Rome in the year 1629, and described by Scheiner*, it deserves the more attention, especially as the great halo, on the present occasion, having its south-western limb elevated to the height of 54° , and its north-eastern depressed to within 14° of the horizon, was in an oblique position, not easily reconciled with the theory of Huygens, which seems to require that such circles should be equally elevated above the horizon all round. It also shews, that Scheiner's original plan of the halo at Rome, which represented it as oblique, may have been right, and that Huygens's correction, which makes it parallel to the horizon, was probably an erroneous conjecture.'

A new Series of the Rectification of the Ellipsis; with some Observations on the Evolution of the Formula $(a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos. \phi)^n$. By James Ivory, A. M.

* Smith's Optics, vol. i. § 534.

The common series for the rectification of the ellipse is

$$P \times \left(1 - \frac{1.1}{2.2} e^2 - \frac{1.1.1.3}{2.4.2.4} e^4 - \frac{1.1.3.1.3.5}{2.4.6.2.4.6} e^6 - \&c. \right)$$

where p represents the semicircumference of the circle, and e the excentricity of the ellipse. The series which this author has invented, and which has the advantage of a quicker convergence, is

$$\frac{\pi}{1+e} \left(1 + \frac{1^2}{2^2} e + \frac{1^2.1^2}{2^2.4^2} e^2 + \frac{1^2.1^2.3^2}{2^2.4^2.6^2} e^3 + \&c. \right)$$

$$e \text{ being } = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1-s^2}}{1 + \sqrt{1-s^2}}$$

The first step to obtain this series is made by supposing the quantity $(a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos z)^{\frac{1}{2}} = A + B \cos z + C \cos 2z + \&c.$ and thence deducing the values of A and B : if the semitransverse of the ellipse is 1, and z be the arc of the corresponding circle, then the fluxion of the arc of the ellipse is $= \frac{z \cdot \sqrt{1-s^2} \cos^2 z}{2}$ or $= \frac{z \cdot \sqrt{1-s^2-s^2 \cos 2z}}{2}$ which, compared

with $z \cdot \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos 2z}$, gives the value of a and b ; and then, taking the whole fluent while z from 0 becomes p , the length of the same ellipse is obtained.

The latter part of the memoir is concerning the evolution of the fraction $(a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \phi)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ which occurs in computing the planetary disturbances.

A short mineralogical Description of the Mountain of Gibraltar.
By Major Imrie.

We wish that this description had been given in simpler language. Many of the words appear to us to be *exotics*.—The remarks concerning the fossil bones, however, are worthy of notice:

‘ It only now remains for me to mention what are generally called the fossil bones, found in the rock of Gibraltar. These have been much talked of, and by some looked upon as a phenomenon beyond the power of explanation. The general idea, which exists concerning them, is, that they are found in a petrified state, and inclosed in the solid calcareous rock; but these are mistakes, which could only arise from inaccurate observation and false description.

‘ In the perpendicular fissures of the rock, and in some of the caverns of the mountain, (all of which afford evident proofs of their former communication with the surface,) a calcareous concretion is found, of a reddish brown ferruginous colour, with an earthy fracture, and considerable induration, inclosing the bones of various animals, some of which have the appearance of being human. These bones, of various sizes, and lie in all directions, intermixed with shells of

of sands, fragments of the calcareous rock, and particles of spar; all of which materials are still to be seen in their natural uncombined states, partially scattered over the surface of the mountain. These having been swept, by heavy rains at different periods, from the surface into the situations above described, and having remained for a long series of years in those places of rest, exposed to the permeating action of water, having become enveloped in, and cemented by, the calcareous matter which it deposits.

‘The bones, in this composition, have not the smallest appearance of being petrified; and if they have undergone any change, it is more like that of calcination than that of petrification, as the most solid parts of them generally admit of being cut and scraped down with the same ease as chalk.

‘Bones combined in such concretions are not peculiar to Gibraltar: they are found in such large quantities in the country of Dalmatia, and upon coasts in the islands of Cherso and Osero, that some naturalists have been induced to go so far as to assert, that there has been a regular stratum of such matter in that country, and that its present broken and interrupted appearance has been caused by earthquakes, or other convulsions, experienced in that part of the globe. But, of late years, a traveller, (Abbé ALBERTO FORTIS,) has given a minute description of the concretion in which the bones are found in that country: and by his account it appears, that with regard to situation, composition and colour, it is perfectly similar to that found at Gibraltar. By his description it also appears, that the two mountain rocks of Gibraltar and Dalmatia consist of the same species of calcareous stone; from which it is to be presumed, that the concretions in both have been formed in the same manner and about the same periods.

‘Perhaps if the fissures and caves of the rock of Dalmatia were still more minutely examined, their former communications with the surface might yet be traced, as in those described above; and, in that case, there would be at least a strong probability, that the materials of the concretions of that country have been brought together by the same accidental cause, which, in my opinion, has collected those found in the caverns of Gibraltar. I have traced, in Gibraltar, this concretion, from the lowest part of a deep perpendicular fissure, up to the surface of the mountain. As it approached to the surface, the concretion became less firmly combined, and, when it had no covering of the calcareous rock, a small degree of adhesion only remained, which was evidently produced by the argillaceous earth, in its composition, having been moistened by rain and baked by the sun.’

Description of a Thermometer, which marks the greatest Degree of Heat and Cold, from one Time of Observation to another, and may also register its own Height at every Instant.
By Alexander Keith, Esq. F. R. S. & F. A. S. Edin.

This thermometer is intended as an improvement on the one which was invented by Mr. Six, which shews the greatest rise or fall from one period of observation to another. The

invention of Mr. Keith appears to be a very ingenious one, and adequate to the end proposed. Is it not, however, liable to the objection under which that of Mr. Six has fallen, that it requires too delicate workmanship to be fit for common use?

Description of a Barometer, which marks the Rise and Fall of the Mercury from two different Times of Observation. By the Same.

The contrivance for indicating the greatest rise or fall is the same as in the thermometer.

Meteorological Abstract for the Years 1794, 5, and 6.—The mean temperature of 1794 was greater than in ordinary seasons by almost 2° : but, falling chiefly in the winter months, it was not attended with any particular advantage. The rain that fell was 28.73 inches.—The commencement of 1795 was remarkable for severe and continued cold: the thermometer being at 8 P. M. 22d Jan. at $14\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$: but the medium, during 52 or 53 days, was $29^{\circ} 6$. with remarkable fluctuations: the rain amounted to 35.729 inches.—The winter of 1796 was peculiarly mild; the thermometer standing, for 10 days in the middle of January, above 50° day and night. The whole year was remarkable for dryness, the fall of rain being only 19.395 inches.

LITERARY CLASS.

On the Origin and Principles of Gothic Architecture. By Sir James Hall, Bart. F. R. & A. S. S. Edin.

This essay is the precursor of a more comprehensive one which the author destines to the same subject; in this, however, are contained his fundamental principles of the theory of Gothic Architecture. Of the origin of this style of building, formerly despised from wrong motives, and since commended inconsiderately and beyond its deserts, whose beauties must be felt, and whose conveniences cannot be demonstrated, we have small and imperfect knowledge:—but, in the free and wide field of conjecture, many theories have been advanced, all resting on a very small basis of acknowledged truth, yet more or less supported by facts and rational hypothesis. In such theories, the object has been to deduce the peculiarities of the Gothic architecture from some simple principle; and to shew the idea which so predominates, as to make that a regular system, which might otherwise appear to be a mass of parts and ornaments, fancifully and capriciously formed and put together.

The prominent characteristics of the Gothic style are the clustered pillar and the pointed arch. The origin of the latter has

has been differently assigned : it has been referred to the form which the tops of an alley of trees assume ; to the shape of the whale's jaw-bone ; and to the intersection of circular arches. The origin discovered by the present writer, and the circumstances which led to it, are thus related :

‘ I was first led by Mr. Byres, a very respectable member of this Society, to observe, among the remains of antiquity at Rome, many beautiful examples of the application of these principles by the ancients ; and though my view of the subject was then very obscure, the theoretical solution of the question not having occurred till long after, I was fully aware of the very great practical advantages which they had derived from the employment of the principle of imitation.

‘ Occupied with this view of ancient art, as I was travelling through the western provinces of France, in my return from Italy, in the end of 1785, I was struck with the beauty of many Gothic edifices, which, far from appearing contemptible, after the masterpieces of art I had seen in Italy and Sicily, now pleased me more than ever. I was thus induced to believe, that those extensive works, possessed throughout of so peculiar a character, and so eminent for unity of style, could not have been carried on, unless the architects who built them, like those of ancient Greece, had been guided in their execution, by some peculiar principle ; and being dissatisfied with all the theories of the art which I had heard of, I undertook the investigation, which has given rise to the following Essay *.

‘ Conceiving that some rustic building, differing widely from the Grecian original, might have suggested the Gothic forms, I had made it my business to search for such a one, when the following accidental circumstance greatly assisted my speculations.

‘ It happened that the peasants of the country through which I was travelling were then employed in collecting and carrying home the long rods or poles which they make use of to support their vines, or to split into hoops ; and these were to be seen, in every village, standing in bundles, or waving, partly loose, upon carts. It occurred to me, that a rustic dwelling might be constructed of such rods, bearing a resemblance to works of Gothic architecture, and from which the peculiar forms of that style might have been derived †.

This

* After stating my own views at full length, I shall enumerate and examine the various opinions of others on the subject of Gothic architecture, no less than five in number. At the time here alluded to, I was acquainted with an opinion, which I have since found to have originated with Dr. Warburton, that the Gothic style was copied from an alley of trees. I was aware of the advantages of this theory in some essential points, yet it always appeared to me unsatisfactory in many others ; and I conceive it to be at best far too vague to serve as a guide to the artist.

† This resemblance, though very obvious in many cases, has not, to my knowledge, been observed by any one but the late Mr. Grose ;

This conjecture was at first employed to account for the main parts of the structure, and for its general appearance only; but after an investigation carried on, at different intervals, during the course of these eleven years, with the assistance of some friends, both in the collection of materials, and in the solution of difficulties, I have been enabled to reduce even the most intricate forms of this elaborate style to the same simple origin.

“ In the present state of the question, the following inquiry must be considered as falling under the denomination of, what is called by Mr. Stewart *, “ *Theoretical History*,” and by some French authors, “ *Histoire raisonnée* ;” being an attempt to trace by conjecture, the steps through which an art has passed, in attaining the state in which we observe it. Indeed it is probable, that few investigations have been undertaken, which more completely correspond to that definition, since, in most subjects of this kind, many steps of the progress are known, and nothing is required but to fill up, by theory, the interval between them; whereas, in the present case, as all direct testimony is wanting, and as no steps of the actual progress of the art have come to our knowledge, our opinions on the subject, hitherto, can only amount to presumptions, founded upon the correspondence of the theory with the monuments of the art now in existence; and, the more numerous and complicated the cases are, in which this coincidence takes place, the greater probability there is in favour of the system.

“ But, though such be the actual situation of the inquiry, we may hope to see it, hereafter, assume a different form; for, should the conjecture, brought forward in the following Essay, carry with it sufficient plausibility to excite a spirit of research among persons best qualified to pursue the subject, there is reason to expect, that discoveries may be made, of a literary or architectural nature, by which its truth or falsehood will be established beyond dispute.

“ What has just been said will, it is hoped, serve as my apology for having advanced a system, which, strictly speaking, is founded on conjecture alone; and, on the other hand, for having enumerated a multitude of particulars, many of which might justly be considered as superfluous, were the theory supported by direct testimony.”

Without the aid of plates, we are unable to follow the author in the farther illustration of his theory. His readers, according

to whom it seems to have occurred in a transient way. He makes use of the shape of a bower to assist his description of a Gothic roof, (*Antiquities of England and Wales*, p. 75.); but he does not go so far as to ascribe the architectonic forms to this origin; a view which, probably, would not have escaped him, had he not been preoccupied with a different one; for he considers the rudiments of a Gothic arch as formed “ of two flat stones with their tops inclined to each other, and touching.” I did not meet with this passage till several years after I had undertaken the present inquiry, and had carried it a considerable length.’

“ * Biographical Account of Mr. Smith.”

to their temper, will smile at or applaud the zeal of the theorist, which has led him to plant a *Willow Cathedral* in confirmation of the truth of his system:—but we cannot forbear to quote the account of this pious and philosophic work:

‘ Finding that all the essential parts of Gothic architecture could thus be explained, by tracing its origin to the imitation of a very simple rustic edifice, I was desirous of submitting the theory to a kind of experimental test, by endeavouring actually to construct a building such as has been described. With the help of a very ingenious country workman *, I began this in spring 1792, and completed it, in the course of the winter following, in a manner which far surpassed my expectation, and which has already met with the approbation of several Members of this Society. The method of construction answered so well in practice, that I doubt if a better could be followed, with such simple materials; and so primitive is the mode of execution, that I believe, with a little ingenuity, the whole might be executed without the help of a sharp instrument, or of any materials but such as the woods afford.

‘ A set of posts of ash, about three inches in diameter, were placed in two rows, four feet asunder, and at the interval of four feet in the rows. Then a number of slender and tapering willow rods, ten feet in length, were applied to the posts, and formed in the manner already described, into a frame, which being covered with thatch, produced a very substantial roof, under which a person can walk with ease †.

‘ This little structure exhibits, in miniature, all the characteristic features of the Gothic style. It is in the form of a Cross, with a Nave, a Choir, and a north and south Transept. The thatch, being so disposed on the frame, as not to hide the rods of which it is composed, they represent accurately the pointed and semicircular arches, and all the other peculiarities of a groined roof. The door is copied from that of Beverley. The windows are occupied by a number of designs, executed, (by means of split rods,) in exact resemblance of those which actually occur in various Gothic edifices. Round each window is a border of compact wicker-work, which, by deepening the shade, adds greatly to the general effect. At a little distance stands the spire, formed of eight straight poles of willow planted in the earth, and rising in an octagonal pyramid to the height nearly of twenty feet. Various other Gothic forms are likewise introduced, which being of the more complicated kind, will be explained in a subsequent part of this Essay.

‘ * John White, cooper, in the village of Cockburnspath, in Berwickshire.’

‘ † The roof, being protected from the weather, is still in perfect preservation, though it has now stood about five years; but the windows and other parts, which are more exposed, are going fast to decay, though they have been often repaired. Soon after the work was finished, a very accurate drawing of it was made by an ingenious young artist, Mr. A. Carse, which it is proposed to engrave for the illustration of this Essay, when published at full length.’

‘ The

‘ The appearance of the whole, whether seen from within or from without, bears, I flatter myself, no small resemblance to a cathedral.’

M. Chevalier's *Tableau de la Plaine de Troye*, illustrated and confirmed from the Observations of subsequent Travels and others. By Andrew Dalzel, M. A. F. R. S. Ed. Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh.

This memoir renews the controversy of the War of Troy, of which we have given an account in reviewing the publications of M. Chevalier and Mr. Bryant, *Monthly Reviews* for May 1793, p. 96. and for February 1797, p. 142, and in some subsequent Numbers. The present controvertist is Mr. Dalzel, the original translator of the *Tableau de la Plaine de Troye*; his zeal is considerable; and he has taken great pains to illustrate and confirm what his friend M. Chevalier has written,—not without success. His essay comprehends a short abstract of the material contents of the original work, as confirmed by subsequent travellers; an account of the opinions entertained of it by learned men; and the several papers, letters, &c. which are the testimonies to the truth of M. Chevalier's narration. Among those who have given their suffrages in favour of the Plain of Troy, are the Abbé Barthélemy, author of the *Travels of Anacharsis*; and Professor Heyne of Göttingen, who caused a German translation of M. C.'s work to be made, illustrated and enriched it with a preface and an Essay on the Topography of the Iliad, and moreover added a Dissertation on the Height and Shadow of Mount Athos, by M. Kaenster. The English Ambassador at Constantinople, (Mr. Robert Liston,) Mr. Hawkins, Dr. Sibthorpe, and Mr. Dalway, have by their own observations confirmed the truth of M. Chevalier's description.

It would be tedious to compare the accounts of the last mentioned travellers with the several passages in the “Plain of Troy;” it is sufficient to remark that the object of the present memoir, as set forth in the title-page, is attained. The account of M. Chevalier, in the most material circumstances, has received ample and satisfactory confirmation. The memoir before us, however, has a second object in view, not inferior to the primary and alleged one in importance; namely, the refutation of Mr. Bryant's scepticisms on the existence of Troy: but in attaining this second object, Mr. Dalzel has in our opinion laboured with less felicity. We are unwilling to become a party in the controversy; and it will not be a dereliction of our former opinions to observe that the reality of Troy and of the Trojan war is not necessarily proved, although M. Chevalier's description be

king. The savage, in ridicule of her oath, nailed horse-shoes to her feet. When her wounds were healed, she proceeded to the royal presence, told her story, and shewed the scars. The just monarch instantly dispatched orders to secure the thief, who being brought to Perth, and condemned, "the King commanded that he should be clothed in a canvas frock, on which was painted the figure of a man fastening horse-shoes to a woman's feet. In this dress he was exhibited through the streets of the city for two days, then dragged at the tail of a horse to the gallows, and hanged."

The native artists, however, according to our author, commenced with Jameson; who was born at Aberdeen, and who burst forth at once with meridian splendour. Many particulars of the life of this eminent painter are given by Lord Orford in his *Anecdotes of Painting*; to which the present author has made a few additions, and has subjoined a catalogue of his works. The largest collection of his portraits is that at Taymouth, the seat of the Earl of Braidalbane, whose ancestor, Sir Colin Campbell, was the painter's chief patron. The account of the person who was employed to copy these valuable pictures is truly affecting:

"This artist was the late ingenious Mr. Robert Johnson of Newcastle, whose death, while employed in this task, is deeply to be regretted. He had copied about fifteen; and four remained to be done, the Marquis and Earl of Argyle, and two from the Genealogical Tree, when the editor was surprised with an account of his deplorable fate, in a letter from Messieurs Morisons dated 18th Nov. 1796. It states that, a few days before, they had received a letter from the man with whom Johnson lodged at the village of Kenmore, desiring them to send for him, as he was quite delirious; and by express the day following they were informed of his death. That, in his anxiety to complete his labour, (he was to have been at Taymouth in June, but a fit of illness prevented him till August,) he would sit all day in a room without fire: a violent cold was the consequence; which neglect increased to a fever, "it flew to his brain, and, terrible to relate, he was bound with ropes, beat, and treated like a madman." This ignorance of the people around him was happily enlightened by the casual arrival of a physician, who ordered blisters; and poor Johnson died in peace! Though the editor endeavoured to solace himself by the reflection that he was giving bread to an ingenious man, whose fate was thus decreed, yet he could not help deeply feeling his being the innocent cause of an event so deplorable in all its circumstances.

His correspondent at the same time informed him, that Johnson had been bound apprentice to Bewick, by his father, an aged carpenter of Gateshead near Newcastle—that Mr. Bewick, observing his uncommon genius for drawing, employed him to trace the figures on the wood in his elegant history of quadrupeds—that he had been employed about six months, on his own account; before he engaged to go to Taymouth—and that his labour supported his aged parents."

The

The volume contains fifty-two portraits, among whom will be found persons truly illustrious, by their rank, their genius, and their science; since among them we discover the names of Knox, Buchanan, Johnston, Drummond of Hawthornden, Fletcher of Salton, James Gregory, and Maclaurin. Of many of these distinguished characters, we think, the biographical account is too short; and we doubt whether the reason assigned by the author is satisfactory, viz. that a fuller and more complete narrative may be found in other productions. This reason, if it be admitted as a good one, renders the possession of those other works necessary, in order to give a knowledge of the persons here represented.—We should have been glad to have found more particulars of William Drummond, whose genius was so highly admired by our dramatic writer Ben Jonson, as to induce him to walk to Hawthornden from London in order to pay him a visit. Mr. Pinkerton has, in this instance, made some amends by the introduction of the following Sonnet, prefixed to an extremely scarce book, *Penarda and Laissa*, by Patrick Gordon, Dort, 1615. 12mo.

‘ Come forth, Laissa, spread thy lockes of gold,
Show thy cheekes roses in their virgin prime!
And though no gemmes thee decke, which Indies hold,
Yield not unto the fairest of thy tyme.

No ceruse, brought farre farre beyond the seas,
Noe poison-lyke cinabre paints thy face;
Let them have that whose native hues displease,
Thow gracest nakednesse, it doth thee grace.

Thy sire no pick-purse is of others witt;
Those jewellis be his owne which thee adorne.
And though thou after greater ones be borne,
Thou mayst be bold ev’n midst the first to sitt.
For whilst fair Juliett, or the Farie Queene
Doe live, with their’s thy beautie shall be seene.

M. WILLIAM DRUMMOND.’

We in vain look for anecdotes of that distinguished politician and philosopher, Fletcher of Salton; whose portrait alone, as here given, creates great interest, and a strong desire of being made acquainted with the original. Though we do not assent to the doubts and suspicions conveyed by the following letter of Sir David Dalrymple to Lord Buchan, we transcribe it for the amusement of our readers:

‘ My Lord,

Newbailles, April the 26, 1787.

‘ Your Lordship, I observe, means to oblige the world with the Life of Fletcher of Salton. It may well be supposed that, considering the people from whom I come, he is no Saint in my Calender—what I wish to know, was he a whig at bottom? I have moral evidence which convinces me that another of that party, Lord Belhaven,

had a private meeting with the Duke of Queensberry in the gallery of the Abbey. *Ville qui parle*, your Lordship knows the rest of the French proverb. The Duke of Hamilton went secretly aboard of the ship of Van Aersen, Admiral Sommeldyke, in the road of Leith, and proposed an union with Holland. You may well judge *who* was to have had an office like *that* of a Scottish Stadtholder. The Admiral related this anecdote to Lord Auchinleck, his grand nephew, from whom I had it.

‘ At present I can remember few anecdotes of Fletcher of Salton.

‘ A footman of his desired to be dismissed. “ Why do you leave me ? ” said he—“ because, to say the truth, I cannot bear your temper—To be sure I am passionate, but my passion is no sooner on, than it is off—Yes, replied the footman, but then, it is no sooner off, than it is on.”

‘ I knew him well, said Fletcher to Dr. Pitcairn, he was hereditary Professor of Divinity at Hamburg—*Hereditary Professor of Divinity*, exclaimed the Doctor, what nonsense !—Doctor, what think you of an hereditary King ?

‘ If I mistake not I have somewhere recorded that Fletcher said “ Toland is a bigotted atheist.”

‘ It was said of Fletcher that he wished for a republic, in which he himself might be King.

‘ I can make a pair of shoes for your feet, said Mitchel the famous shoe maker, but I defy all the shoemakers in Scotland to make a pair for your head.

‘ Like the elder Cato, and the elder Scaliger, he went late to the study of Greek.

‘ He had acquired such knowledge of Italian as to be able to compose a treatise in that language. Prince Eugene spoke to him in Italian, but Fletcher was not able to answer—*yes* or *no*.

‘ I ever am, &c.’

The whole account of Robert, first Earl of Ancram, is interesting ; and, as it furnishes a fair specimen of the biographical part of this work, we shall present it entire to our readers. The portrait exhibits a countenance of great character.

‘ This nobleman, descended of Sir Andrew Ker, of Fernyhirst, in Roxburghshire, and direct male lineal ancestor of the present Lothian family, was first, Gentleman, and afterwards, Lord of the Bedchamber to Charles I. who advanced him in 1633, to the dignity of the peerage by the titles of Earl of Ancram, Lord Ker of Nisbet, Long Newton, and Dolphington *.

‘ Lord Clarendon says of King Charles, “ that he saw and observed men long before he received them about his person ; ” and as other historians, less partial to this monarch agree, however much they have differed respecting his kingly virtues, that he was eminent for every quality and endowment which adorns the sphere of private life ; his affection and favors are surely to be considered as honorable.

* Vide Douglas's Peerage,

to those on whom they were conferred : the Earl of Ancram, it is unquestionable, with but a short intermission *, enjoyed both for a long series of years ; and of this distinction he has not only shewed himself worthy by his probity, his taste † and accomplishments, but also by his faithful adherence to Charles in every vicissitude of fortune throughout his disastrous reign ; an adherence, by which upon the death of this unfortunate prince, it appeared that he had become so obnoxious to the prevailing party as to be under the necessity of retiring into Holland, where he experienced many hardships ‡, and died,

* * It is evident from two letters written to this Earl, by the celebrated Drummond of Hawthornden, that he had lost, for a time, the favor of the court, but on what account, the letters make no mention ; the probable conjecture is that it happened in consequence of a quarrel, related by Crawford in his book of officers, which ended in a duel between him and a Mr. Charles Maxwell, wherein the latter fell, which obliged the Earl to leave the kingdom. It was very likely during his exile on this account, that he indulged his taste for paintings by collecting pictures, and brought with him, on his return to England, those with which, according to Vertue, he afterwards presented his royal master.'

† We have taken occasion, in the preceding note, to mention his taste for paintings ; he had beside, a turn for poetry, which is displayed in a beautiful little sonnet, addressed to his friend William Drummond, and which, on account of its being so little known, is here transcribed.

‘ SONNET IN PRAISE OF A SOLITARY LIFE.

“ Sweet solitary life, lovely dumb joy,
That need'st no warnings how to grow more wise
By other men's mishaps, nor the annoy,
Which from sore wrongs done to one's self doth rise.
The morning's second mansion, Truth's first friend,
Never acquainted with the world's vain broils ;
Where the whole day to our own use we spend,
And our dear time no fierce ambition spoils.
Most happy state that never tak'st revenge
For injuries received, nor do'st fear
The court's great earthquake, the griev'd truth of change :
Nor none of Falshood's savory Lies dost hear,
Nor know'st Hope's sweet disease, that charms our sense,
Nor it's sad cure, dear bought Experience.”

‘ It also appears from the letter which accompanied this sonnet, that he had written several others.

† Not only himself but his wife and children, whom he left behind in England, were oftentimes in great distress and indigence. In a letter extant of Lady Ancram's to William Earl of Lothian, she writes, “ I think I need not tell you of my affliction, your father being banished, and all our means taken from us ever since the King's death,

died, before the restoration, at a very advanced age. He was twice married, first to Elizabeth, daughter of ——— Murray of Blackbarony, by whom he had a son, William, afterwards Earl of Lothian; secondly to Lady Anne Stanley, daughter of William 6th Earl of Derby, and sister to James 7th Earl of that name, who suffered at Bolton for assisting Charles II. ; by her he left a son, Charles, who succeeded him as Earl of Ancram, and four daughters.

‘ This portrait of Lord Ancram is from a painting at Newbottle Abbey, done in Holland when he was eighty years of age, but by what master is not known ; it possesses, however, great merit, and is extremely interesting from the impression it gives of that mildness and resignation, which under every material event of his life, particularly marked the Earl’s Character.

‘ The drawings for this and the preceding engraving were taken by Mr. James Nixon, Royal Associate, now in Edinburgh, and obligingly given to the Editor of this work by the Earl of Ancram.’

Mr. P. concludes his preface with observing that, ‘ if encouragement should arise, another volume of this size might contain the most curious of the remaining portraits ; and beyond that extent, materials could hardly be found.’—We hope that the work will meet with the patronage of the public, as the nature of it is interesting in no common degree, and the engravings are generally well executed. We would recommend it to the author, however, to be more detailed in his narrative in a future volume : perhaps the plan adopted by Dr. Birch, in the work before mentioned, might in the present instance be pursued with advantage : it being sufficiently circumstantial to gratify curiosity, and not so minute as to occasion fatigue in the perusal.

The abrupt beginning of the Life of Knox,

‘ Who has not heard of John Knox ?’—
naturally reminded us of Armstrong’s Ballad

“ *Is there ever a man in all Scotland ?*” &c.

death, that I have not been able to afford him the least relief, that if it had not bine for some that were meere strangers to us, and did compassionate my sad condition by sometimes furnishing us with meate and fyer, I and my children had starved ; and that which forceth me to make you so much a sharer in our calamities, as to acquaint you with them, is by reason of many sad letters, which I get weekly from my Lord your father of his great wants, and the disagreeing of the place where he is with his health and age.” And towards the end of her letter, she adds “ I must deal plainly with you, I and my children have bine several days that we have had neither bread, meete, nor drink, or knowledge or credit where to helpe ourselves.”

ART. III. *An Account of the Proceedings of the Acting Governors of the House of Industry in Dublin, for Two Years.* Annexed to their Petition to the Hon. the House of Commons of Ireland in the Session of 1798. 8vo. pp. 68. 1s. Dublin, printed; London, reprinted for Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

THE interests and management of the poor are subjects entitled to consideration, not less from motives of prudence than of charity; and at no former period have they undergone more attentive investigation than has of late years been bestowed on them. In public establishments for the relief of distress, the greatest discouragement has been experienced from the difficulty of discovering adequate means to guard against peculation, whether in embezzlement or in misapplication. Another object of nearly equal difficulty, and of superior importance, is the prevention, or rather the cure, of idleness: by methods not coercive, but such as excite and encourage a spirit of industry; without which, habits of useful labour cannot be established. These objects, experience has abundantly proved, will not be attained until the opulent shall cease to content themselves with contributing merely their pecuniary assistance. It appears to us one of the most blameable neglects in our police, that the management of concerns, which necessarily must have so much influence on the moral character as well as on the comforts of so great a portion of the people, is scarcely ever consigned to those whose circumstances and stations in life place them at a distance from temptation; except when, occasionally, men of such description voluntarily step forwards. Instead of such uncertain arrangement, if all householders, whose assessment to the poor's rates exceeded a certain quantum, were required to undertake in rotation the offices of inspection and management; and no exemptions were allowed without sufficient reason, or subjecting to the payment of a considerable increased rate; the portion of integrity and intelligence, which would then be applied to the foregoing purposes, could not fail of producing important public benefits.

The present account of the management of the House of Industry in Dublin well illustrates the advantage to be derived from the personal assistance of independent and informed men. In the article of expence, it appears that, previously to the appointment of the acting Governors, (*selected on the 19th of June 1797,*) the average expence of maintenance, with other incidental charges in relieving the poor, was at the rate of 7l. 1s. 1d. per head per annum:—That, in the first half year of the new direction, ending at Christmas 1797, the average expence for the same purposes was at the rate of 5l. 4s. 11d. per

per head per annum;—and, from December 25th, 1797, to December 25th, 1798, (the average number in the house during that period being 1587,) the charges of maintenance, with the incidental expences, were at the rate of 4l. 15s. 3d. per head. This great saving of expence was principally effected by a reform in the dietary of the house, ‘which underwent a strict examination; when it was discovered, that, from the quality of the food, the mode of distribution, the fraud and peculation of the officers, the expence was enormous.’—‘To the mode of distributing the different articles of provision from the steward’s stores to the several offices, there had hitherto been no check. They therefore established the following regulation: the head porter every morning at an early hour returns to the secretary the number to be provided with food for the day; the secretary calculates the quantity necessary to be issued from the stores, and the several officers acknowledge the receipt in pass-books, which are compared by the Board once a week with the steward’s book.’ This certainly was a material regulation. We have known similar rules observed in cases in which it has been necessary to cook, in one common boiler, provisions for a large number of people; with the additional precautions of making public the numbers to be fed, and the quantity of provisions to be issued, and causing two of the people to attend at the steward’s office to see that the right quantity was issued, and afterward to see it safely delivered into the cook-room. Occasionally, likewise, an inspection was made into the weights and measures. In no case, are such vigilant cautions more necessary than in institutions for the maintenance of the poor.

‘It having been found (we are here told) that numbers were induced to enter the house, from the certainty of receiving gratuitous support, superior to what their labour elsewhere would have procured them, the diet was reduced to that standard by which the industrious labourer can subsist in his own habitation at the lowest rate of wages.’ With this practice of economy, it is satisfactory to find that the health of the poor did not suffer by the alterations; that, in the statement of the mortality, there appears a very great decrease after the new regulations were put in execution; and that ‘notwithstanding the increased price of provisions, and several other necessary articles, the estimates for subsistence were not exceeded, nor the comforts of the poor abridged.’

One of the great excellencies in this Establishment is its being (as expressed in the petition) ‘supplementary to every other charitable institution;’ receiving persons of every description, without any other recommendation than apparent distress. It must likewise be noticed that, to clear the streets of vagrants and beggars, many are sent into the house, and there kept for a term to labour.

‘ Of 1644 persons now (November 1797) in the house, 1292 have been admitted at their own desire, any of whom would consider expulsion as a severe punishment.’ — ‘ The doors are open to the distressed of every description without certificate or recommendation, (children not excepted) and all who have not been compelled to enter, are discharged on expressing a wish : facts that cannot be too often stated.’

‘ The indiscriminate association of the poor must necessarily have been destructive of industry, order, and decency ; the first object, therefore, of the acting Governors, was to form them into separate classes, according to their ages, conduct, and abilities. By these means they were enabled to excite industry by emulation, to discriminate between the idle vagrant and the industrious yet distressed manufacturer.’ — ‘ To render this more effectual, each class was placed under the immediate superintendence of one of the Governors, who pledged himself to pay daily attention to that class over which he was to preside, and to report to the Board his observations on their situation. Thus an intimate knowledge was obtained of every person in the institution, their wants were accurately known and immediately redressed.’

Workshops are fitted up in the house, with the requisite accommodations for the labourers ; and the Governors have established it as a rule, that those who are capable of labour should be clothed from their own exertions ; from which regulation, it appears that they are better provided, and more careful of their clothing, than when they conceived that their right to clothes arose from nakedness. Proper persons are engaged (many of whom are found in the house) to instruct the children in trades ; to whom they are apprenticed for seven years, the Board reserving the power of assigning over their indentures, which is done when tradesmen of good character make application. The children are likewise instructed in the principles of religion, in reading, writing, and arithmetic ; and are, every Sunday, examined by some of the Governors.

Among the employments taught to the female children, is *hosiery* :

‘ A manufacture, (says the account) which, though extremely well adapted to females, has not hitherto been attempted by them in this country ; and the Board cannot omit this opportunity of stating their opinion, that the employing females in this manufacture, and in others of a like kind, wherein an expert hand is more requisite than masculine strength, merits every possible encouragement from the Legislature and the public.’ — ‘ The usurpation of the male sex, in many departments of industry formerly occupied by females, having deprived of support a very considerable number of the latter class.’

We trust that our readers will not complain, if our remarks on a subject of such general importance are extended beyond the usual limits. In many workhouses, we believe particularly

particularly in some of those in London, industry meets with great discouragement. We have been informed that poor women, employed there in making shirts, have been paid not more than a penny for each shirt made; and for other work not in greater proportion. In the former management of the Dublin House of Industry, the poor received one-sixth part of the produce of their labour; at present, they are allowed two-thirds, the rest being reserved to pay the expence of machinery and superintendence.

It is not an easy matter to determine what portion of their labour it may be proper to withhold from the poor, in houses established for their relief and support. The benefit which they derive from their labour is the greatest encouragement to be industrious; yet it appears obvious that, if they had the free disposal of the whole, clear of all deduction, it might be a temptation to many to remain burthensome to the house, who were capable of maintaining themselves without assistance. Whatever deductions are made, it might be highly useful that an account of them should be publicly given to the labourer, and of the purposes to which they would be applied. This publicity would assist in guarding against frauds; and the knowledge that the portion of his labour, which he did not receive himself, would be faithfully applied to beneficial purposes, would be a credit and an encouragement to the labourer.

In the tables of the expences of the establishment, we find that the house is provided with two clergymen, one of the Protestant, and one of the Roman Catholic religion, at equal salaries. Besides an Infirmary, a house, detached from all other buildings, is assigned exclusively to fevers,

With so many excellent regulations, and under such superior management, we sincerely join in the hope expressed by the Governors, that the House of Industry in Dublin will become a model for other similar institutions throughout Europe:—if it should be deemed advisable to continue such establishments. Of their real propriety and advantages, we have at times expressed our doubts, and particularly on a late occasion:—See M. R. for December, p. 397, &c. See also some remarks on this subject in the course of the article immediately following this, in speaking of Mr. Kent's view of the agriculture of the county of Norfolk.

ART. IV. *A General View of the Agriculture of the County of Kent; with Observations on the Means of its Improvement.* Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement; from the original Report transmitted to the Board; with additional Remarks of several respectable Country Gentlemen and Farmers. By John Boys, of Betsanger, Farmer. 8vo. pp. 206. 4s. sewed. Nicol. 1796.

ART. V. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Norfolk, &c.* By Nathaniel Kent, of Fulham, Middlesex. 8vo. pp. 236. 5s. Boards. Nicol. 1796.

ART. VI. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Stafford, &c.* By W. Pitt, of Pendeford, near Wolverhampton. 8vo. pp. 241. 5s. 6d. sewed. Nicol. 1796.

FINDING these agricultural reports in our arrears list, we have taken the liberty of putting them together; not from any disrespect to either of the reporters, but in order at once to discharge obligations which have remained too long unpaid. The gentlemen who have here undertaken to exhibit views of these counties appear to be intelligent men, capable of executing the work assigned to them; and we cannot but deem it highly honorable to the kingdom at large, that so many men should be found in it who are qualified to assist the Board of Agriculture in accomplishing the important object of its institution.—As these reports are executed on a similar plan, it may not be unacceptable to our readers to blend their several statements; and the intelligence which they convey may be more amusing, and more valuable, by being thus arranged and compared. Indeed, a very useful and instructive publication may easily be made, by judiciously epitomizing the county views. Such a work would exhibit, in a very narrow compass, the population, wealth, and resources of the kingdom. It is not to be supposed that perfect accuracy will be obtained at first: but, by the establishment of a system of inquiry respecting agriculture, and the several branches of political economy, errors will gradually be corrected, and the truth be more completely ascertained. Mr. Boys, Mr. Kent, and Mr. Pitt, (whom we here exhibit as no mean agricultural triumvirate,) have no doubt been diligent in collecting and faithful in recording facts, as they appeared to them in the course of their respective surveys: but it is not to be supposed that, in researches so extensive and various, nothing should want correction. Under the head of population, it is difficult to be accurate: but authors who venture to state the population of a county should particularly explain their mode of calculation, and should take some pains to verify it by the actual enumeration of the people in certain districts. Could this be done in every parish through-

30 Boys, Kent, Pitt—*Agric. of Kent, Norfolk, & Stafford.*

out the kingdom, we should probably find the number of the inhabitants of Great Britain considerably greater than it is commonly supposed to be; and we ground this conjecture on the facility with which we have raised and recruited our immense fleets and armies during a war of singular exertion. This, however, is not a place for discussing this topic; and we shall take, with little or no comment, the reports of the gentlemen before us on this and other matters: leaving the business of correction to those who have opportunity and leisure for performing it.

Kent is stated by Mr. Boys to contain 1400 square miles, or 896,000 statute acres.

Norfolk is stated by Mr. Kent to contain 1710 square miles, or 1,094,400 statute acres.

Staffordshire is stated by Mr. Pitt to contain 1220 square miles, or 780,800 statute acres.

The population of Kent is given at 200,000.

The population of Norfolk is given at 220,000.

The population of Staffordshire is given at 250,000.

Mr. Boys averages the rental of Kent at 15s. per acre, amounting to 672,000*l.*

Mr. Kent gives the same average for Norfolk, making its rental to be 770,400*l.*

Mr. Pitt estimates the annual rental of Staffordshire at 600,000*l.*

In Kent, the whole extent of the commons is said to be 28,000 acres.

Norfolk is said to have of unimproved commons 80,000 acres.

Staffordshire, by Mr. Pitt's account, must contain of wastes more than 150,000 acres.

All these gentlemen agree in the expediency of a general inclosure act to forward the improvement of our waste lands: but one of them (Mr. Boys) confesses that there is a great quantity of poor land, which would require as much money to bring it to the utmost state of improvement, as would purchase the fee simple of it.

On the question of the best size of farms, there is not the same unanimity. It is maintained by the last-mentioned reporter, that large farms tend to lower the price of provisions; while the author of the Staffordshire survey is of opinion that there should be farms of all sizes; and Mr. Kent says, 'if great farms only are to be encouraged, which seems to be the aim of some, husbandmen of small capitals will be effectually cut off from the common means of raising themselves in life. Population will likewise receive an irrecoverable blow from the suppression of *these little hives of plenty.*'

Judicious

Judicious remarks are made by each of these gentlemen on the state of the poor, and on the poor laws: but we particularly approve those of Mr. Kent. He wishes to have the poor considered as a part of the community, and to interest them in the general welfare. Instead of massing and congregating the poor in one huge building, Mr. Kent advises cottage accommodations for them:

‘ There is one thing which is incumbent on all great farmers to do, and that is to provide comfortable cottages for two or three of their most industrious labourers, and to lay two or three acres of grass land to each, to enable such labourer to keep a cow and a pig:—such a man is always a faithful servant to the farmer who employs him: he has a stake in the common interest of the country, and is never prompt to riot, in times of sedition, like the man who has nothing to lose; on the contrary, he is a strong link in the chain of national security*.’

Though one of the writers before us controverts the propriety of universally assigning to the cottage the quantity of land here mentioned, we think that there should be some cottages so circumstanced, as a reward to honest industry; and that it is wise, in a political view, that even the poorest should have some portion of property. Mr. Kent very justly supposes that the astonishing rise of the poor-rates originates in the increased price of provisions beyond the proportional augmentation in the price of labour; he recommends to magistrates the perusal of Fleetwood’s *Chronicon Preciosum*; and he concludes his report with the following advice, which does equal credit to his head and heart:

‘ Every farmer I would advise, to consider the labourer not as an incumbrance upon him, but as essentially necessary to carry on his business, without whom he could not live or support his own family; but the present weak policy has arisen from a misconception of the utility and real importance of the labourer to society. No farmer will slight his horse, or give him the less hay or corn for its being dear; if he did, he would expect the animal to decline in condition.—Why then should the human servant be less attended to? He is, undoubtedly, the first sinew that puts the labour of the farm in motion, and without which it cannot be carried on: if, therefore, his full earnings will not keep him, it is a duty incumbent on his master to let him have a sufficiency of corn, for his own family, at the same rate or price by which he is paid for his labour, and not to suffer the spirit of a poor man, of this description, to be broken.

‘ The force of this argument is grounded in my heart, and I hope it will strike those with conviction, who have power, in their different stations, to administer the comfort I recommend—and that no dispassionate person will blame me, for thus standing forth—the steady friend of the helpless.’

* See other remarks on this subject, Rev. December, p. 397, &c.

On the use of *Oxen* in husbandry, we here observe some diversity of opinion. Mr. Pitt informs us that, in the county of Stafford, 'oxen used to be employed; but, as a more extended and improved cultivation has taken place, and the price of human labour has increased,' (a material matter to be taken into the account,) 'they have given way to horses.' Mr. Kent recommends the use of *Oxen* in preference to horses; remarking that 'in most instances they are nearly equal to horses, and, in their support, they are full thirty per cent. cheaper.' Still, however, he admits that there is a prejudice against them in Norfolk; and that only a few gentlemen-farmers use them: but he hopes that this prejudice will gradually be removed.

The subject of *Fallowing* is not contemplated by each of these writers in the same light. Mr. Kent would explode it altogether; while Mr. Boys contends that, in the clayey and stiff soils, a well made summer-fallow is certainly requisite. If Mr. Kent's observations be restricted to the sandy or sandy-loam soils of Norfolk, they are very proper: but there are adhesive soils which cannot be broken and pulverized by any mode so well as by summer fallowing.

In these three reports, we find but one mention made of the *Thrashing Machine*; viz. by Mr. Boys, who tells us that the one which he has is the sole machine of which he has heard in the county.

By a comparison of these reports, the reader will perceive the peculiarities and characteristic features of each county.

Kent is distinguished for its hop-grounds, and for the culture of the canary seed in the Isle of Thanet. Its manufactures are trifling, but it has a rich and respectable yeomanry.

Staffordshire is remarkable for its manufactures of various kinds, particularly for its Pottery. More rain falls * on it than on either Kent or Norfolk. It continues to be stocked with all kinds of timber: but it does not grow corn enough for its own consumption.

Norfolk is celebrated not only for its manufactures, but for a most productive cultivation. If it cannot boast of its timber, it may be proud of its grain; which is so abundant, that the four ports of Norfolk export as much as all the rest of England:—but in Norfolk they have no idea of making *bacon*.

These surveys contain, as usual, plans of farm-houses, yards,

* * Thirty-six inches of rain annually fall in Staffordshire, while from twenty to twenty-one only fall in and about London; so that the climate of this county may be said to incline to wet.—It is not however so wet as Lancashire, where the rains amount to forty-two inches; and hence by some it has been called the Moab or wash-pot of England.

and offices; and views of cattle, and of husbandry implements. Mr. Pitt has inserted in his publication, a botanical catalogue of indigenous plants: which is a valuable addition to the other notices respecting the county which he has undertaken to describe.

ART. VII. *Tracts on the Nature of Animals and Vegetables*. By Lazaro Spallanzani, R. P. U. P. 8vo. pp. 400. 6s. Boards. Edinburgh, Creech. London, Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

THIS translation of some recent tracts, by the Abbate Spallanzani, will be a most acceptable present to those of our philosophical readers who are unacquainted with Italian. To comment on the merits of this illustrious naturalist, or to lament his recent death, would be totally superfluous; by all philosophers were his talents known, and by all will his decease be regretted:—we shall therefore proceed to give some account of the contents of the volume before us.

The first tract contains observations and experiments on the animalcula of different vegetable infusions; and the object of these experiments was to ascertain whether the progress of boiling, long-continued, was destructive to the animalcula contained in the infusions of vegetable substances. The event of the trials is thus summarily given:

‘ Thus, it clearly results, that long boiling the seed infusions, does not prevent the production of animalcula. To explain why the infusions boiled for the shortest time have the fewest animalcula, I may observe: That animalcula should appear in infusions, it is necessary the substances infused, sensibly begin to dissolve; for, as this dissolution is effected, or at least for a certain time, the number of animalcula augments. Seeds of plants, boiled for a shorter time, are, for a shorter period, encompassed and penetrated by the dissolving power of the fire; consequently, when put to macerate, will not be so soon decomposed.’

On extending the experiment, it appeared that animalcula might be produced even after the seeds had been roasted, and ground like coffee:

‘ Further, I subjected vegetable seeds to the most intense heat, the heat of burning coals, and the flame from a blowpipe. I exposed the seeds in an iron plate upon coals. When converted to cinders, I reduced them to powder, and made as many infusions as there were kinds of seed. The cinders from the blowpipe were extremely dry and hard. I could scarcely believe my eyes, when I saw animalcula in these infusions.’

The next set of experiments was made to ascertain the effect of boiling on the animalcula, when the infusions were

were, and were not deprived of blood, appeared precisely in the same state, that is, half dead, and not attempting to escape although at liberty. Fifteen minutes afterwards, I took others from the snow: all seemed contracted, motionless, and almost frozen. I returned them to the snow; and in some hours transported them to a warm situation, carefully observing what happened. By little and little, they stretched themselves, opened their eyes, and prepared to escape. Thus I observed in all, without any difference. I had the curiosity still to bury them in the snow. I saw anew the same phenomena; and I constantly found the results the same, when the experiments were repeated at different seasons of the year. All the tree-frogs, toads, water-newts, whether deprived of blood or not, equally experienced the lethargic slumber, when exposed to cold, but revived with a sufficient degree of heat.

The slightest shock of electricity proved fatal to all kinds of the animalcula. The odour of camphor, of turpentine, of tobacco, of sulphur, and the application of oleaginous or spirituous liquors, were all destructive of them. The animalcula lived, and performed their functions, for a considerable time, *in vacuo*: but none can support the want of air beyond a month.—In speaking on this subject, the author seems to discredit the stories which have been told, of living animals discovered in the centre of stones or trees:

‘I well know there are instances cited, of different animals said to have existed without enjoying the benefit of this element (*air*); such as, the accounts of frogs found alive in the middle of the hardest substances; of living toads discovered in the centre of large stones, or of entire trees, where the smallest particle of air could not insinuate itself into their retreats. But, those histories are more the object of the admiration, than the belief, of persons who have made any progress in Experimental Philosophy. It is requisite they should be supported by authority; which is most essential, in a case so strange and paradoxical. Until we obtain facts better ascertained, we think ourselves entitled to assert, that there is in nature no known animated being, which can exist without enjoying the advantages presented by air.’

The chapter on the generation of animalcula is extremely curious, but cannot be made intelligible without the engraving. We shall extract one of the most remarkable passages, because it leads to general conclusions on this subject:

‘The volvox, like most animalcula, is very transparent, and the internal structure is accurately seen. Some observers have already discovered young in the womb of the mother, extending to the fifth generation. In my long observations upon infusions, I have found two abounding with the volvox; those of hemp-seed, and the tremella. They are also found in the putrid water of dunghills. These animalcula are at first very small, but grow to large, as to be distinguished by the naked eye. They are of a greenish yellow colour, of a globular figure,

figure, and of a transparent membranaceous substance. In the middle, are included several very minute globes; Fig. 5. pl. 1. These minute globes, when examined with the most powerful magnifiers, appear so many smaller volvoxes, which have each their diaphanous membrane, inclosing others still less. I have distinguished the third generation, but never the two others. It is possible they were not visible in those I examined, from their not being of the size, or species examined by other naturalists. When all had quitted the mother, the common membrane burst, and begun to dissolve. Meanwhile, the new volvoxes contained others, burst, and then dissolved. By isolating them, I saw the thirteenth generation.

One of the strongest objections made to the system of germs, arises from the great difficulty in conceiving the successive envelopment of animals in animals, and plants in plants. Oftener than once, we have found one egg within another; and some osseous part of one fœtus has been found within another fœtus. The butterfly is included in the shell of the chrysalis; and the chrysalis in the skin of the caterpillar. In the seeds of vegetables, are seen the rudiments of plants; and in the root of the hyacinth, the fourth generation has been discovered. The volvox affords a new argument for inclusion. There, we see it to the thirteenth generation; and probably that is not the last.

In the succeeding chapter, we find an account of a polypus, not accurately described before, which is bell-shaped, and adheres by its long tail to the lentil-root. It multiplies by dividing longitudinally into two: other classes of animalcula multiply by dividing transversely.

But the most surprising and the most extraordinary multiplication I have seen, is that of some animated globes, which roll like pellets in the infusions of water lentil, and are visible without the microscope. They are externally covered with tumours, formed of several animalcula, situated upon each other, and attempting to escape. Figure a body almost spherical, formed of concentric strata, each of which is an aggregate of animals. The animalcula composing the exterior or first stratum, separate from this sort of sphere: then the second stratum laid open, which is composed of animalcula; and by its separating, discovers the third. There are even strata inferior, so that the whole globe is decomposed, from the circumference to the centre. The globe has no other than a rolling motion; but the composing animalcula have the greatest activity. Each globe produces more than an hundred.

While the strata of the globes decomposed, I seized some animalcula, and isolated them. At first, each did not equal one hundredth part of the globe in size; but in three or four days, every one was as large as the whole. Their motion became slower, in proportion as they increased. When full grown or complete, they rolled with only the precession common to those globes. The surface of the stratum was at first smooth; it became unequal, and loaded with tumours. These tumours were so many distinct animalcula, which,

after the separation, swam in the fluid. The animalcula of the second stratum did the same, likewise those of the successive strata, until the globe was entirely decomposed.

What a field for contemplation and inquiry is here opened to the philosopher! It seems that these minute inhabitants of our world have not merely life imparted to them, but passions and affections; for the author tells us, (p. 61.) that some of them carry on fierce wars among themselves. How severe a satire on human ambition is this remark!

On making experiments with infusions exposed to the air, and others more or less secluded from it, the author came to the following conclusion:

The number of animalcula developed, is proportioned to the communication with the external air. The air either conveys the germs to the infusions, or assists the expansion of those already there.

The *Second Tract* contains observations and experiments on the *vermiculi testinales hominum, animalium aliorumque*; with an examination of the theory of organic molecules. It has been the singular fortune of Leuwenhoeck, that his observations have been discredited chiefly on account of the extravagant conclusions which he drew from them. His facts are now re-established by the present author's experiments; and the fallacy of Buffon's observations is laid open.—The miscellaneous nature of our Review precludes the discussion of this subject, though so curious in itself, and so ably treated by M. Spallanzani.

In the succeeding tract, consisting of experiments and observations on animals and vegetables confined in stagnant air, we are greatly surprised to find the author treating on the causes of death produced by impure air, without any reference to the present theory of respiration. He speaks of atmospheric air as a homogeneous fluid; and he only inquires whether its elasticity be impaired by the respiration of animals confined in it. He has drawn a vague inference from his experiments, that the animals are destroyed by a poisonous matter exhaled from their lungs. We are astonished by the unacquaintance with modern chemistry which this essay discloses.

The tract on some singular animals, which may be killed, and afterward revived, is highly curious and interesting. The Professor is here at home again. This essay turns chiefly on the properties of the wheel-animal, and the sloth.—The wheel-animals may be killed and revived repeatedly, by keeping them dry, and without sand, and afterward moistening them with water. This process of death and resurrection was carried

carried on successfully eleven times, with the same insect. It is a singular circumstance that their revival cannot be effected without the presence of sand. We shall transcribe the entertaining commencement of the second chapter of this essay :

‘ The sand of tiles, the mud of ditches, and of marshes, which pass in the vulgar eye for the vilest of matter, are to the philosophic observer a source of wonder, from the singular beings they contain. To ditches and marshes we owe the armed, club, funnel, bulb, and knotted polypus. It is there we find the fresh water worm, the boat worm, and the springing millepede. Those animals have confounded the human mind, and have created a new philosophy. When the sand of tiles does not serve for an abode to wheel-animals, it will not for that reason be less famous or remarkable. An animal, which revives after death, and which, within certain limits, revives as often as we please, is a phenomenon, as incredible as it seems improbable and paradoxical. It confounds the most received ideas of animality : it produces new ideas, and becomes an object no less interesting to the researches of the naturalist, than to the speculations of the metaphysician. But the celebrity of this sand will encrease, when we learn, that it contains other animals, which, like the wheel-animal, possess the property of resurrection ; so that we may almost say, all the animals living in sand are destined to be immortal. I have discovered in sand two new species of animals, which I proceed to describe. I lament that their rareness has prevented me from extending my observations as far as I could have wished, or rather as far as the importance of the subject would have required.’

The new animals, of which particular descriptions are given, are the *skoth*, and a minute species of eel ; which possess the faculty of reviving after apparent death, like the wheel-animal.

The analogy between animals and vegetables is preserved, M. Spallanzani remarks, in this curious property : for ‘ many plants spring again after they have perished.’ He instances two, the *nostoc* and the *tremella*.—He thinks that these facts cannot be explained by supposing that the power of revival depends on simplicity of structure, because other plants and animals, equally simple in their conformation with these, do not possess such a power. He suggests the following explanation :

‘ In animals which have no heart, it is almost probable, that the principle of their life resides in the irritability of their muscles ; which being the case, if the state of animals is such, that the irritable nature of the heart and muscles is destroyed, so as to leave no hope of it being repaired, it is clear that the animal not only dies, but must always remain dead : but if the irritability is such, that, either by nature or art, it may be re-excited, it is certain that the animal should pass from death to life. It will not matter that it remains dead a long time, even for an age. The reader comprehends my idea. When wheel-animals, sloths, and the eels of tiles, are deprived

of water, their irritability is lost, as is evinced by facts, and they die: when other animals have once lost this irritability, they never recover it; but wheel-animals, sloths, eels of tiles, &c. resume at once their original life.'

With every possible respect for the character of this eminent naturalist, we must take the liberty of saying that this is no explanation of the phænomena in question: it is merely an enunciation of the facts, in abstract terms; and the reader who analyses it will perceive that he is only informed that, if irritability * can be re-excited, under certain circumstances, it may be re-excited. *There needs no ghost come from the grave to tell us this, Horatio!*

In the preceding tract, on the origin of the *plantula* of mould, the author had taken occasion to discuss, and to confute, the doctrine of spontaneous generation. The microscope shews that the globules, or minute heads of ramose mould, are really mushrooms. The black dust of mould was proved by experiments to be its seed:

'But, does the mould, which springs without being sown, and by the care of nature alone, upon an infinity of substances dispersed here and there, also derive its origin from the dust we may suppose disseminated through the air, and upon terrestrial substances? If natural and artificial mould are of the same species, and if the artificial is produced by the dust of the natural mould, I cannot see why the last should not derive its origin from the same principle, especially since it is demonstrated, that no other part of the mould, as the roots and stalks, aid the reproduction. The hypothesis, supposing that this dust is invisibly scattered through all, and gives existence to a great quantity of natural mould, is one of the most reasonable hypotheses in philosophy. If each head of ripe mould can furnish a million of seeds, as we have seen, and if each spot of mould contains a prodigious number of heads, it is clear, that in some years, the dust should be extremely multiplied; particularly, from its levity and fineness, it may be universally spread.'

The last piece in this volume is a memoir, by the late excellent M. Bonnet, on the re-production of the head of the land-snail, containing some additional details concerning his observations on that curious subject.

The language of the translation of these tracts is often ungrammatical and inelegant, and we have noticed some foreign idioms, and several uncouth turns of expression which fall under the denomination of Scotticisms. On the whole, however, the task is performed in a creditable manner.

Since the appearance of this volume, the public prints have announced the death of its celebrated author. We apprehend

* *Irritability!* Nothing in physiology wants explanation more than this most mystical and most convenient term.

that

that he had too little of the *Sloth* in his composition, to allow us to hope that he will revive from the sleep from which no man awakes in this world.

ART. VIII. *A Treatise on Febrile Diseases*; including-Intermitting, Remitting, and Continued Fevers, Eruptive Fevers, Inflammations, Hæmorrhages, and the Profluvia; in which an attempt is made to present at one view, whatever, in the present state of Medicine, it is requisite for the Physician to know respecting the Symptoms, Causes, and Cure of those Diseases. By Alexander Philips Wilson, M. D, F. R. S. Edinb. Physician to the County Hospital at Winchester, &c. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 682. 9s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

THIS work may be considered as a publication of Dr. Wilson's lectures on the subjects indicated in the copious title-page, and it is offered to students as an ample text-book, the study of which may supersede the necessity of resorting to the more voluminous systematic writers. It necessarily partakes of the defects of compositions thus originating, and thus directed. The diffuse mode of instruction, adapted to the lecture-room, is irksome to the reader; and the great difficulty of combining, in one book of moderate size, a clear representation of the infinite number of facts and opinions scattered through original writers, which has been so often felt, is again demonstrable from the work before us. If, indeed, Dr. Wilson should complete his plan, (which will require, he imagines, four other volumes, of equal size with the present,) we do not conceive that much labour will be saved to the student by perusing them; and we apprehend that Dr. Cullen's first lines, with all their imperfections, will still continue to be preferred as an elementary book.

The introduction is occupied by criticisms on the arrangement of diseases, in Dr. Cullen's Nosology; which will not be universally interesting. Systems of Nosology are now generally regarded more as guides in reading, for the purpose of particular reference, than as authorities in opinion; and Dr. Cullen's arrangement will be chiefly consulted as a *reasoned* index, by practitioners who are acquainted with books and diseases. If the classification of diseases, without changing the nomenclature, were of any importance, we should certainly object to the author's distribution of some species, particularly that of Erysipelas: but discussions of this kind are totally unprofitable.

Although Dr. Cullen's System is apparently attacked by Dr. Wilson, yet the present Treatise is in reality a diffuse commentary on the "First Lines;" a great part of it, therefore, will be regarded as a repetition of the Professor's work. We acknowledge, however

hectic fever.—I have observed this deposition in other cases where there were night sweats without any fever. Nay I have found on repeated trials, that I could at pleasure occasion the appearance of the furfuraceous sediment in the urine of healthy people, by promoting the perspiration by small doses of tartar emetic or Dover's powder. In short, all that we can infer from it in fevers is, that a relaxation of the skin has taken place, that the secretion by this organ is restored. These appearances in the urine therefore, at the favourable termination of fevers, are certainly not the cause, but the consequence, of recovery*.

On the subject of contagion, the author's observations are sensible and just: but we were disappointed, by finding no mention of the plan of removing patients from infected houses into a fever-hospital, which was attended with so much success during the last plague in Russia, as described by Dr. De Mertens†; and which is said to have proved highly useful in the common typhus, at Chester, Liverpool, and Manchester.

In discussing the proximate cause of fever, the hypotheses of Cullen and Brown are said to be the only opinions worthy of examination. Dr. Cullen's theory is dismissed with a very negligent criticism:—but the system of Brown is minutely and laboriously examined; and, though objections are made to its particular application in some instances, yet Dr. Wilson evidently espouses its general principles. It would be out of place to enter here into a discussion of the merits of the Brunonian System. So far as it contains a description of facts, however disfigured by an affected style and an ambitious use of new words, it may be admitted:—but the most objectionable tendency of Dr. Brown's System is, that it discourages all endeavours to perfect the history of diseases. By establishing an

* The following are the only appearances of the urine, if we except those it assumes in consequence of morbid affections of the urinary organs, which can be distinctly marked, namely, the pale urine without cloud or sediment; the pale urine with a light cloud appearing a few hours after it has been passed; the high-coloured urine remaining clear, or having a light cloud formed in it without sediment; the high-coloured urine remaining clear, or having a light cloud formed in it, and depositing usually a considerable time (from 12 to 24 hours) after it has been passed a red chrystalised sediment; the high-coloured urine becoming turbid after it has been passed for a short time, (from one to five or six hours) and depositing a light coloured sometimes reddish sediment, now and then (after the urine has stood for a longer time) mixed with more or less, never with much, of the red chrystalised sediment; and in almost every complaint, as well as in perfect health, the urine occasionally assumes all these appearances. Such is the foundation of the practice of those empirics, who pretend to determine the complaint under which their patient labours by inspecting the urine.

† See M. R. vol. xxix. N. S. p. 78.

arbitrary arrangement of morbid affections, similar to the degrees of a thermometer, the convert of Dr. Brown, is flattered with the hope of determining the nature of diseases, as accurately as the temperature of the atmosphere. Painful must be the disappointment of the young practitioner, who undertakes the treatment of a patient, trusting to such fallacious premises.

In Dr. Wilson's improvement of the Brunonian System, we observe nothing so remarkable as his concession on the subject of stimulants. Whatever acts on the living system is, according to Dr. Brown, a stimulant. The fallacy of this assertion could not escape Dr. Wilson's notice; he therefore exchanges the term stimulant, for the general one of *Agent*; and he divides Agents into *Stimuli* and *Atonics*, which were formerly termed *Sedatives*. We do not perceive, however, that his definition of this class of remedies is very luculent: 'Atonics,' he says, 'are those agents which produce atony.' This appears to be an attempt to bring about a coalition between the Systems of Cullen and Brown; an attempt as hopeless as that of yoking wolves or milking he-goats. Instead of shewing deference to the medical fashion of the day, an appeal ought always to be boldly and impartially made to experience; which may be improved, but which cannot contradict itself.

The view of the treatment of continued fever differs little from that which has been given by Dr. Cullen, though studiously varied in its terms. The only important addition which we have remarked consists in the notice of the effects of cold and tepid bathing, abridged from Dr. Currie's Medical Reports. We do not mention the sources of Dr. Wilson's observations, for the purpose of discrediting his work; he has everywhere quoted his authorities with the most perfect candour: but we notice them to account for our passing over many important passages, without criticising them, as they have been already brought before the public in the works of their respective authors. Little variance, indeed, subsists among writers of different opinions respecting the theory of fever, when they come to explain themselves on the practice; if we except the first extravagancies of the Brunonians, in the immense dose of ardent spirits and opium recommended by them at one period.

It is time that medicine should be emancipated, like other parts of natural history, from the bondage of sects; and there never was a more favourable period for its liberation than the present. A spirit of free inquiry, and of attachment to facts in preference to authorities, is daily gaining ground in the profession. If medical men will now observe, before they at- tempt

tempt to combine observations; if they will sacrifice the attractions of novelty to the sober love of truth; and above all, if they will consider their individual reputation as subordinate to those great interests of mankind, which are involved in the improvement of medical science; the most important consequences may be expected from the present disposition of the faculty. For this purpose, the occasional publication of critical disquisitions on select subjects would prove extremely useful. It is of the utmost importance to know what part of our original opinions is superseded by recent discoveries; and this cannot be attained without recurring to a fresh examination of what we had formerly learned.—Books written on the plan here adopted by Dr. Wilson are therefore desirable publications, provided they be less diffuse. Life is so short, and we have so many things to learn, that it is incumbent on authors to give their sense in as few words as possible.

One disagreeable reflection must occur to the reader of Dr. Wilson's book; that, in the most frequent of all diseases, which is almost hourly under the notice of physicians, very little improvement has been made in the history of its varieties, concerning which there is still great uncertainty; and that we seem to be as far distant from a true theory of the proximate cause as ever. When we compare this stationary condition of theory, with the improvements in the methods of cure which have taken place within the last fifty years, we shall find abundant reason to set a lower value on system, and a higher on rational experience.

ART. IX. *Practical Education*; by Maria Edgeworth, and Richard Lovell Edgeworth, F. R. S. M. R. I.

; [*Article concluded from the Rev. for September, p. 72—85.*]

IT is perhaps a subject for regret rather than of wonder, that, in a nation in which science of every kind has made such great progress as in this country, so considerable a portion of the period of youth should be devoted to the mere acquisition of a knowledge of greek and latin. We are surely indebted for this circumstance more to the inveteracy of antient usage, than to the conviction that the period of life thus occupied cannot be more profitably spent. While our great public schools continue to have the same object of education as they now have, it is not surprizing that the character of our education should continue to be what it is; and perhaps, if a deep and critical acquaintance with the dead languages be as necessary a qualification for a gentleman of the present day, as it was for a scholar who was occupied in clearing away the rubbish

rubbish which surrounded antient learning at its revival, no institutions, probably, are better qualified to impart such attainments, and the time spent in the pursuit is perhaps not to be regretted. It should be remembered, however, that, when these institutions originated, science was in its infancy in this country; the idea of learning was associated solely with a knowledge of these languages; and their acquisition was of necessity the sole or primary object of education:—but now, that the various sciences have unfolded themselves to our view, it will not be absurdly derogating from the importance of classical literature, to say that these sciences have at least an equal claim to our attention, and an equal right to an adequate share of our education. Any investigation, therefore, into the means of either shortening the period allotted to, or of lessening the difficulties attendant on, an attainment of the greek and latin languages, will be interesting and useful.

An inquiry of this nature occupies several pages of the present publication, in the xiiith chapter, which treats on 'GRAMMAR AND CLASSICAL LITERATURE.' As the discussion of this subject involves a considerable detail, it is impossible for us to convey any idea of the principles or method pursued by an abridgment or analysis; and we must content ourselves by giving an extract from this chapter.—After having stated it as their opinion that the first principles of grammar may be rendered intelligible and familiar to children by conversation, the authors proceed thus:

• When children have thus by gentle degrees, and by short and clear conversations, been initiated in general grammar, and familiarised to its technical terms, the first page of tremendous Lilly will lose much of its horror. It has been taken for granted, that at the age of which we have been speaking a child can read English tolerably well, and that he has been used to employ a dictionary. He may now proceed to translate from some easy books a few short sentences: the first word will probably be an adverb or conjunction; either of them may readily be found in the Latin dictionary, and the young scholar will exult in having translated one word of Latin; but the next word, a substantive or verb, perhaps will elude his search. Now the grammar may be produced, and something of the various terminations of a noun may be explained. If *muram* be searched for in the dictionary, it cannot be found, but *mura* catches the eye, and with the assistance of the grammar it may be shewn, that the meaning of words may be discovered by the united helps of the dictionary and grammar. After some days patient continuation of this exercise, the use of the grammar, and of its uncouth collection of words and syllables, will be apparent to the pupil: he will perceive that the grammar is a sort of appendix to the dictionary. The grammatical formulæ may then by gentle degrees be committed to memory, and when once got by heart they

they should be assiduously preserved in the recollection. After the preparation which we have recommended, the singular number of a declension will be learnt in a few minutes by a child of ordinary capacity, and after two or three days repetition the plural number may be added. The whole of the first declension should be well fixed in the memory before a second is attempted. During this process, a few words at every lesson may be translated from Latin to English, and such nouns as are of the first declension may be compared with *musa*, and may be declined according to the same form. Tedious as this method may appear, it will in the end be found expeditious. Omitting some of the theoretic or didactic part of the grammar, which should only be read, and which may be explained with care and patience, the whole of the declensions, pronouns, conjugations, the list of prepositions and conjunctions, interjections, some adverbs, the concords, and common rules of syntax, may be comprised with sufficient repetitions in about two or three hundred lessons of ten minutes each: that is to say, ten minutes application of the scholar in the presence of the teacher. A young boy should never be set to learn a lesson by heart when alone. Forty hours! Is this tedious? If you are afraid of losing time, begin a few months earlier; but begin when you will, forty hours is surely no great waste of time: the whole, or even half of this short time, is not spent in the labour of getting jargon by rote; each day some slight advance is made in the knowledge of words, and in the knowledge of their combinations. What we insist upon is, that *nothing should be done to disgust the pupil*: steady perseverance, with uniform gentleness, will induce habit, and nothing should ever interrupt the regular return of the daily lesson. If absence, business, illness, or any other cause, prevent the attendance of the teacher, a substitute must be appointed; the idea of relaxation on Sunday, or a holiday, should never be permitted. In most public seminaries, above one third, in some nearly one half, of the year is permitted to idleness: it is the comparison between severe labour and dissipation that renders learning hateful.

Chap. XIV. 'GEOGRAPHY and CHRONOLOGY.'—In this short chapter, the authors propose to unite the study of these subjects to that of history; and they recommend the use of technical helps, such as are to be found in Gray's *Memorie Technica*, and such as Priestley's chart of biography.

Chap. XV. 'ARITHMETIC.'—Though the writers enter considerably into detail in this part of their subject, yet, as they do not profess to have discovered any shorter method of teaching this science than what is common, we shall only observe that their chief endeavour is to unfold to their pupils the principles of the science, and the rationale of its rules, while they are learning its technical operations. This answers the double purpose of exercising the reasoning faculty, and rendering the path of instruction smoother and more agreeable.

Chap.

Chap. XVI. 'GEOMETRY.'—We meet with nothing that is either new or particularly worthy of observation in this division of the work.

Chap. XVII. 'MECHANICS.'—This chapter is chiefly occupied by a description of an instrument called a panorganon, invented by the authors for the purpose of explaining to their pupils the effects of the mechanical powers. We find also some sensible observations on the propriety of accustoming children to the use of the technical terms of art and science; and a recommendation to seize every opportunity which may occur in conversation, for explaining to children the meaning of words, and the structure of common domestic implements, as the sure and effectual method of preparing the mind for the acquirement of science.

Chap. XVIII. 'CHEMISTRY.'—Under this head, we find a slight sketch of such experiments as, on account of their simplicity and the facility and security attending their performance, may be executed in teaching children the principles of this science.

Chap. XIX. 'PUBLIC and PRIVATE EDUCATION.'—In discussing the respective advantages of a public and private education, the authors give the preference to the latter. They acknowledge the necessity of public schools; because there must be great numbers of parents in society, who, being occupied in public or professional pursuits, in business, or in trade, have not leisure to educate their children themselves; nor ability to provide a private preceptor. Their principal objections to public seminaries are, that too much time is sacrificed to the study of the learned languages; that too little attention is paid to the general improvement of the understanding, and to the formation of the moral character; that a schoolmaster cannot pay attention to the temper and habits of each of his numerous scholars; and that parents, during that portion of the year which their children spend with them, are not sufficiently solicitous to co-operate with the views of the schoolmaster.—We shall present our readers with an extract, containing a lively picture of the feelings and character of the youth just rushing into the world from the shackles of a public school, contrasted with those of one emerging into life from under the controul of the parent.

'When a common schoolboy bids adieu to that school which he has been taught to consider as a prison, he exults in his escape from books and masters, and from all the moral and intellectual discipline, to which he imagines that it is the peculiar disgrace and misery of childhood to be condemned. He is impatient to be thought a man, but his ideas of the manly character are erroneous, consequently his ambition will only mislead him. From his companions

whilst at school; from his father's acquaintance, and his father's servants, with whom he has been suffered to consort during the vacations, he has collected imperfect notions of life, fashion, and society. These do not mix well in his mind with the examples and precepts of Greek and Roman virtue: a temporary enthusiasm may have been kindled in his soul by the eloquence of antiquity; but, for want of sympathy, this enthusiasm necessarily dies away. His heroes are not the heroes of the present times; the maxims of his sages are not easily introduced into the conversation of the day. At the tea table he now seldom hears even the name of Plato; and he often blushes for not knowing a line from a popular English poet, whilst he could repeat a cento from Horace, Virgil, and Homer; or an antistrophe from Æschylus or Euripides. He feels ashamed to produce the knowledge he has acquired, because he has not learned sufficient address to produce it without pedantry. On his entrance into the world there remains in his mind no grateful, no affectionate, no respectful remembrance of those under whose care he has passed so many years of his life. He has escaped from the restraints imposed by his schoolmaster, and the connexion is dissolved for ever.

But when a son separates from his father, if he has been well educated, he wishes to continue his own education: the course of his ideas are not suddenly broken; what he has been, joins immediately with what he is to be; his knowledge applies to real life, it is such as he can use in all companies; there is no sudden metamorphosis in any of the objects of his ambition; the boy and man are the same individual. Pleasure will not influence him merely by her name, or by the contrast of her appearance with the rigid discipline of scholastic learning; he will feel the difference between pleasure and happiness, and his early taste for domestic life will remain or return upon his mind. His old precepts and new motives are not at war with each other, his experience will confirm his education, and external circumstances will call forth his latent virtues. When he looks back he can trace the gradual growth of his knowledge; when he looks forward it is with the delightful hope of progressive improvement. A desire in some degree to repay the care, to deserve the esteem, to fulfil the animating prophecies, or to justify the fond hopes of the parent who has watched over his education, is one of the strongest motives to an ingenuous young man; it is an incentive to exertion in every honorable pursuit. A son who has been judiciously and kindly educated, will feel the value of his father's friendship. The perception that no man can be more entirely interested in every thing that concerns him, the idea that no one more than his father can share in his glory or in his disgrace, will press upon his heart, will rest upon his understanding. Upon these ideas, upon this common family interest, the real strength of the connexion between a father and his son depends. No public preceptor can have the same advantages; his connexion with his pupil is not necessarily formed to last.

Young men who are designed for the army and navy should never, in the opinion of our authors, be educated in private families:

families : but, whether the child be intended for a public school or for private tuition, they strongly recommend an attention to his early education, on the part of the parent, and on the principles laid down in this publication ; because it is in his father's house that the first important lessons, those which decide his future abilities and character, are learned.

Chap. XX. ' FEMALE ACCOMPLISHMENTS, MASTERS, and GOVERNESSES.'—The value of female accomplishments, particularly *music*, *drawing*, and *dancing*, are duly appreciated in this chapter. In order to shine, and to be distinguished for the possession of these attainments above the rest of the sex, a sacrifice of so much time is demanded, and such a waste of the higher powers of the mind is induced, as no superiority and excellence can compensate. This observation will be found to be an accurate one, if we consider these attainments in any of those points of view in which they are generally supposed to be advantageous : whether we regard them as valuable, because they are the objects of universal admiration ; or because they are tickets of admission to fashionable company ; or because they are supposed to increase a young lady's chance of a prize in the matrimonial lottery ; or because they are resources against *ennui*, and afford continual amusement and innocent occupation.—Their merit in all these respects is canvassed by the present writers with good sense and fair reasoning. Their inutility in promoting the happiness of families and individuals, and the probability of a decline in the public taste for them on account of their becoming common, are displayed with considerable ingenuity. Our readers, however, are not to suppose that an absolute condemnation is passed on any of these accomplishments ; it is only the abuse of them that is censured : the authors wish only that they should be considered as amusements and domestic occupations, not as matters of competition and of exhibition ; nor yet as the means of attracting temporary admiration.

Such being their opinions as to these acquirements, we are not to wonder, that in the character of a *Governess* they are considered as forming but secondary considerations ; and that the material points of examination are, ' Whether she possess a sound, discriminating, and enlarged understanding. Whether her mind be free from prejudice ; whether she has steadiness of temper to pursue her own plans ; and, above all, whether she has that species of integrity which will justify a parent in trusting a child to her care. We shall attend to her conversation, and observe her manners, with scrupulous minuteness.'

We shall take leave of this rational chapter by quoting the following passage on the literary education of females :

‘ From the study of the learned languages, women by custom, fortunately for them, are exempted : of ancient literature they may, in translations which are acknowledged to be excellent, obtain a sufficient knowledge, without paying too much time and labour for this classic pleasure. Confused notions from fashionable publications, from periodical papers, and comedies, have made their way into common conversation, and thence have assumed an appearance of authority, and have been extremely disadvantageous to female education. Sentiment and ridicule have conspired to represent reason, knowledge, and science, as unsuitable or dangerous to women ; yet at the same time wit, and superficial acquirements in literature, have been the object of admiration in society : so that this dangerous inference has been drawn almost without our perceiving its fallacy, that superficial knowledge is more desirable in women than accurate knowledge. This principle must lead to innumerable errors ; it must produce continual contradictions in the course of education : instead of making women more reasonable, and less presuming, it will render them at once arrogant and ignorant ; full of pretensions, incapable of application, and unfit to hear themselves convinced. Whatever young women learn, let them be taught accurately ; let them know ever so little apparently, they will know much if they have learnt that little *well*. A girl who runs through a course of natural history, hears something about chemistry, has been taught something of botany, and who knows but just enough of these to make her fancy that she is well informed, is in a miserable situation, in danger of becoming ridiculous, and insupportably tiresome to men of sense and science. But let a woman know any one thing completely, and she will have sufficient understanding to learn more, and to apply what she has been taught so as to interest men of generosity and genius in her favour. The knowledge of the general principles of any science is very different from superficial knowledge of the science ; perhaps, from not attending to this distinction, or from not understanding it, many have failed in female education.’

Chap. XXI. ‘ **MEMORY AND INVENTION.**’—However disposed the world may be to admire that astonishing species of memory which is able to retain every idea that has once been presented to the mind, and which enables a man to repeat whole volumes of what he has read or heard, there will perhaps be little difference of opinion as to the superior utility of that memory which, though it be not remarkable for its faculty of repetition, has its whole collection of materials so dexterously, *orderly*, and conveniently arranged, that the mind can instantaneously find what is best suited to its immediate purpose. At a time when it was necessary that a General should remember every soldier's name, or a Demagogue the names of every citizen (*vide* Plutarch and Quintilian) ; or when ignorance of the art of printing rendered the memory the chief means of circulating knowledge ; it might be necessary to cultivate its strongest retentive powers. In the present day, however,

such

such talents are rather objects of admiration than utility, considered with respect to general exertion: for it rarely happens that those men, who are distinguished for an extraordinarily retentive memory, have been celebrated for any original productions of taste or genius. The mind seems to derive no strength, and to receive no nutriment, from the vast load which is heaped upon it. It assimilates nothing to itself. Whatever is received into the memory lies there like food on a disordered stomach, crude and undigested. The Abbé de Longuerue, and the Florentine Librarian Magliabechi, are instances of the truth of this assertion: they were both remarkable in their day for their memory and learning: yet the former thought "that two antiquarian books upon Homer, viz. *Antiquates Homericae*, and *Homeri Gnomologia*, were preferable to Homer himself." He would rather have them, he declared, because with them he had all that was useful in the poet, without being obliged to go through his long stories, which put him to sleep. "As for that madman Ariosto," said he, "I sometimes divert myself with him:"—"He was of opinion that the English have never done any good, since they renounced the study of Greek and Arabic for geometry and physics!!"—The latter (Magliabechi) has left nothing of his own composition for the instruction of posterity, except an inscription round a medal!—Such are sometimes the effects of a surprising memory and erudition on the taste, judgment, and imagination of the possessor; and such may be its utility to the world!

These and similar observations occur on the subject of a good memory; in the course of which, having enumerated a few of the methods which we employ to assist ourselves in remembering, the authors proceed to consider how the memory should be cultivated. The following passages will best explain their opinion on this subject:

'The mistaken notion, that the memory must be exercised only in books, has been often fatal to the pupils of literary people. We remember best those things which interest us most; which are useful to us in conversation; in our daily business or amusement. So do children. On these things we should exercise their memory. Tell a boy who has lost his top, to remember at such a particular time to put you in mind of it, and if he does, give him another; he will probably remember your requests after this, better than you will yourself. Affectionate children will easily extend their recollective memories in the service of their friends and companions. "Put me in mind to give your friend what he asked for, and I will give it to him if you remember it at the right time."—

'A good memory for business depends upon local, well arranged associations. The man of business makes an artificial memory for himself out of the trivial occurrences of the day, and the hours as they pass recall their respective occupations. Children can acquire these

these habits very early in their education ; they are eager to give their companions an account of any thing they have seen or heard ; their tutors should become their companions, and encourage them by sympathy to address these narrations to them. Children who forget their lessons in chronology, and their pence tables, can relate with perfect accuracy any circumstances which have interested themselves. This shews that there is no deficiency in their capacity. Every one, who has had any experience of the pleasure of talking, knows how intimately it is connected with the pleasure of being listened to. The auditors, consequently, possess supreme power over narrative childhood, without using any artifice, by simply shewing attention to well arranged, and well recollected narratives ; and ceasing to attend when the young orator's memory and story become confused, he will naturally be excited to arrange his ideas. The order of *time* is the first and easiest principle of association to help the memory. This, till young people acquire the ideas of cause and effect, will be their favourite mode of arrangement. Things that happen at the same time ; things that are said, thoughts that have occurred, at the same time, will recur to the mind together. We may observe, that ill educated people continue through life to remember things by this single association ; and consequently, there is a heterogeneous collection of ideas in their mind, which have no rational connexion with each other ; crowds which have accidentally met, and are forced to live for ever together.—

‘ Long before children read fluently for their own amusement, they like to hear others read aloud to them, because they have then the entertainment without the labour. We may exercise their memory by asking for an account of what they have heard. But let them never be required to repeat in the words of the book, or even to preserve the same arrangement ; let them speak in words of their own, and arrange their ideas to their own plan ; this will exercise at once their judgment, invention, and memory.

“ Try if you can explain to me what I have just been explaining to you,” a sensible tutor will frequently say to his pupils ; and he will suffer them to explain in a different manner from himself, he will only require them to remember what is essential to the explanation. In such repetitions as these the mind is active, therefore it will strengthen and improve.—

‘ Dr. Johnson, who is said to have had an uncommonly good memory, tells us, that when he was a boy, he used, after he had acquired any fresh knowledge from his books, to run and tell it to an old woman of whom he was very fond. This exercise was so agreeable to him, that it imprinted what he read upon his memory.—

‘ By these observations we by no means would insinuate, that application to books is unnecessary. We are sensible that accurate knowledge upon any subject cannot be acquired by superficial conversation, that it can be obtained only by patient application. But we mean to point out, that an early taste for literature may be excited in children by conversation, and that their memory should be first cultivated in the manner which will give them the least pain. When there is motive for application, and when habits of industry have been

been gradually acquired, we may securely trust, that our pupils will complete their own education. Nor should we have reason to fear, that those, who have a good memory for all other things, should not be able to retain all that is worth remembering in books. Children should never be praised for merely remembering exactly what they read, they should be praised for selecting with good sense what is best worth their attention, and for applying what they remember to useful purposes.'

The connection between the memory and the invention is very intimate : the latter derives all its materials for combination from the former : they who invent, therefore, exercise the memory with pleasure, from the immediate sense of utility and success. The inventive faculty can be employed not only on important subjects, but it can be exercised in the most trifling circumstances of domestic life :

' Scarcely any family can be so unfortunately situated, that they may not employ the ingenuity of their children without violent exertion, or any grand apparatus. Let us only make use of the circumstances which happen every hour. Children are interested in every thing that is going forward. Building, or planting, or conversation, or reading ; they attend to every thing, and from every thing might they with a little assistance obtain instruction. Let their useful curiosity be encouraged ; let them make a part of the general society of the family, instead of being treated as if they had neither senses nor understanding. When any thing is to be done, let them be asked to invent the best way of doing it. When they see that their invention becomes immediately useful, they will take pleasure in exerting themselves.'

The remainder of this chapter is chiefly devoted to a few examples of the mode by which the inventive faculty of children was successfully exercised by the authors.

Chap. XXII. 'TASTE and IMAGINATION.'—The writers do not enter into any metaphysical disquisitions concerning these subjects, but content themselves with arranging such observations as are most applicable to practical education :—in the course of which, they shew how the principles of taste may be early taught, without injury to the general understanding ; and how the imagination should be prepared for the higher pleasures of eloquence and poetry.

' To educate the taste and the imagination, it is not necessary to surround the heir of an opulent family with masters and connoisseurs. Let him never hear the jargon of amateurs, let him learn the art "not to admire." But in his earliest childhood cultivate his senses with care, that he may be able to see and hear, to feel and understand, for himself. Visible images he will rapidly collect in his memory ; but these must be selected, and his first associations must not be trusted to accident. Encourage him to observe with attention all the works of nature, but shew him only the best imitations of art ; the first ob-

jects that he contemplates with delight will remain long associated with pleasure in his imagination; you must, therefore, be careful, that these early associations accord with the decisions of those who have determined the national standard of taste. In many instances, taste is governed by arbitrary and variable laws; the fashions of dress, of decoration, of manner, change from day to day; therefore no exclusive prejudices should confine your pupil's understanding. Let him know, as far as we know them, the general principles which govern mankind in their admiration of the sublime and beautiful; but at the same time give him that enlarged toleration of mind, which comprehends the possibility of a taste different from our own. Shew him, and you need not go farther than the Indian skreen, or the Chinese paper in your drawing room, for the illustration, that the sublime and beautiful vary at Pekin, at London, on Westminster-bridge, and on the banks of the Ganges. Let your young pupil look over a collection of gems or of ancient medals; it is necessary that his eye should be early accustomed to Grecian beauty, and to all the classic forms of grace. But do not suffer him to become a bigot, though he may be an enthusiast in his admiration of the antique. Short lessons upon this subject may be conveyed in a few words. If a child sees you look at the bottom of a print for the name of the artist, before you will venture to pronounce upon its merits, he will follow your example, and he will judge by the authority of others, and not by his own taste. If he hears you ask, Who wrote this poem? Who built this palace? Is this a genuine antique? he will ask the same questions before he ventures to be pleased. If he hears you pronounce with emphasis, that such a thing comes from Italy, and therefore must be in good taste, he will take the same compendious method of decision upon the first convenient occasion. He will not trouble himself to examine why utility pleases, or will he analyse his taste, or discover why one proportion or one design pleases him better than another; he will, if by example you teach him prejudice, content himself with repeating the words, proportion, antique, picturesque, &c. without annexing any precise ideas to these words.

We are sorry that our limits will not allow us to present the readers with more copious extracts from this chapter; in which the authors discover a considerable extent of information, and convey much useful instruction.

We are not disposed to cavil with any nicety about the particular use and application of a word, provided it be uniform and definite: but the application of the term imagination, here observable, appears to us rather vague and uncertain. Instead of confining its meaning to one of the faculties of the human mind, the writers seem to extend it to all; and if this comprehensive sense of the term be accurate, the propriety of their reasoning cannot be disputed: but, as we are disposed to confine its meaning simply to the power of selecting and combining, or forming, images or ideas, we do not exactly feel the propriety of their language in several instances. At page 606, they say,
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'with respect to the arts, imagination may be considered practically in two points of view ; as it relates to our taste, and as it relates to our talents for the arts.'—Imagination, in our sense of the word, is certainly not essential to a taste for the arts, whatever it may be to a talent for them: for, in the contemplation of a picture, whether conveyed to us through the medium of poetry or through that of painting, the peculiar pleasure which we receive from it does not proceed from our imagination being employed in selecting and combining images, or ideas, but from a mere perception of the harmony and beauty of the images and ideas selected and combined for us by the poet or the painter.

The remainder of this chapter is employed in defining the boundaries between the enthusiasm of genius and its extravagance ; and in pointing out some of the precautions that may be used, to prevent the moral defects to which persons of ardent imaginations are often subject.

Chap. XXIII. 'WIT and JUDGMENT.'—We much question whether the following mode of proceeding will ever instil into a child the powers of wit :

'Those who are desirous to make their pupils witty, must sacrifice some portion of their judgment of the acquisition of the talent for wit ; they must allow their children to talk frequently at random. Amongst a multitude of hazarded observations, a happy hit is now and then made : for these happy hits children who are to be made wits should be praised ; and they must acquire sufficient courage to speak from a cursory view of things ; therefore the mistakes they make from superficial examination must not be pointed out to them ; their attention must be turned to the comic, rather than to the serious side of objects ; they must study the different meanings and powers of words ; they should hear witty conversation, read epigrams, and comedies ; and in all company they should be exercised before numbers in smart dialogue and repartee.'

In the observations on the method of cultivating the judgment of children, much good sense is discoverable. The first step is to teach them to examine and compare such external objects as are present to the senses :

'Let them compare the size and shape of different objects ; let them frequently try what they can lift ; what they can reach ; at what distance they can see objects ; at what distance they can hear sounds : by these exercises they will learn to judge of distances and weight ; and they may learn to judge of the solid contents of bodies of different shapes, by comparing the observations of their sense of feeling and of sight. The measure of hollow bodies can be easily taken by pouring liquids into them, and then comparing the quantities of the liquids that fill vessels of different shapes. This is a very simple method of exercising the judgment of children ; and, if they are allowed to try these little experiments for themselves, the amusement will fix the facts in their memory, and will associate pleasure

sure with the habits of comparison. Rousseau rewards Emilius with cakes when he judges rightly ; success, we think, is a better reward. Rousseau was himself childishly fond of cakes and cream.'

When children begin to argue, care must be taken to make them explain their terms, and abide by them ; and, in books and conversation, all bad reasoning must be avoided. They should never be encouraged to argue and quibble for victory.

Chap. XXIV. 'PRUDENCE and ECONOMY.'—The first of these virtues is considered as composed of judgment and resolution. To cultivate this virtue in children, they should be accustomed to choose for themselves in those things which are interesting to them ; and whether they have selected well or ill, they should be suffered to abide steadily by their determination. Experience will soon teach them to reflect on and compare the value of the objects committed to their choice.

On the subject of *Economy*, the following observations occur :

'Economy is usually confined to the management of money, but it may be shewn on many other occasions : economy may be exercised in taking care of whatever belongs to us ; children should have the care of their own clothes, and if they are negligent of what is in their charge, this negligence should not be repaired by servants or friends, they should feel the real natural consequences of their own neglect, but no other punishment should be inflicted ; and they should be left to make their own reflections upon their errors and misfortunes, undisturbed by the reproaches of their friends, or by the prosing moral of a governess or preceptor. We recommend, for we must descend to these trifles, that girls should be supplied with an independent stock of all the little things which are in daily use ; housewives and pocket books well stored with useful implements ; and there should be no lending and borrowing amongst children. It will be but just to provide our pupils with convenient places for the preservation and arrangement of their little goods. Order is necessary to economy, and we cannot more certainly create a taste for order, than by shewing early its advantages in practice as well as in theory. The aversion to *old* things should, if possible, be prevented in children ; we should not express contempt for *old* things, but we should treat them with increased reverence, and exult in their having arrived under our protection to such a creditable age. "I have had such a hat so long, therefore it does not signify what becomes of it !" is the speech of a *promising* little spendthrift. "I have taken care of my hat, it has lasted so long ; and I hope I shall make it last longer," is the exultation of a young economist, in which his prudent friends should sympathise.'

'Young people who are educated at home should, as much as possible, be educated to take a family interest in all the domestic expences. Parental reserve in money matters is extremely impolitic ; as Mr. Locke judiciously observes, that a father, who wraps his affairs up in mystery, and who, "views his son with jealous eyes," as a person

person who is to begin *to live* when he dies, *must* make him an enemy by treating him as such. A frank simplicity and cordial dependence upon the integrity and upon the sympathy of their children, will ensure to parents their disinterested friendship. Ignorance is always more to be dreaded than knowledge.”—

‘ Before a young man goes into the world, it will be a great advantage to him to have some share in the management of his father’s affairs ; by laying out money for another person he will acquire habits of care, which will be useful to him afterwards in his own affairs. A father, who is building, or improving grounds, who is carrying on works of any sort, can easily allot some portion of the business to his son, as an exercise for his judgment and prudence. He should hear and see the estimates of workmen, and he should, as soon as he has collected the necessary facts, form estimates of his own, before he hears the calculation of others ; this power of estimating will be of great advantage to gentlemen, it will circumscribe their wishes, and it will protect against the low frauds of designing workmen.’

The work closes with a summary chapter, and an appendix containing conversations and anecdotes of children. In concluding our view of it, we sincerely recommend it to the perusal of all parents ; as well of those who are aware of the importance of an early attention to the education of their children, since they will receive much useful instruction ; as of those who confine their ideas on this subject to scholastic discipline, since it may produce the important conviction in their minds, that the nursery and the parlour are as much the theatres of education as the school or the college.

It is observable that, comprehensive as this performance is, several branches of the subject undergo no particular discussion ; such as the inculcation of the principles of chastity in females, of courage in males, &c. and that the topic of religious instruction is resigned wholly, as it should seem, to the tenets and the discretion of the parent. These omissions do not arise from inattention : they are noticed in the preface ; and the writers state that they are silent in regard to religion and politics, because they ‘ have no ambition to gain partisans, nor to make proselytes, and because they do not address themselves exclusively to any sect or to any party.’ With respect to courage and chastity, they appear to consider those qualities as so inherent and habitual in Britons, that all artificial recommendation of them must be unnecessary.

ART. X. *The Report of the Select Committee appointed by the House of Commons, relative to the Establishment of a New Police in the Metropolis, &c. and the Convict Establishment; containing the Plans proposed for establishing a New Office of Police and Revenue in the Metropolis.—Proposals for a New Mode of employing Convicts.—Plan of the New Building for employing and securing Convicts.—Draft of a Contract between the Lords of the Treasury and Jeremy Bentham, Esq. for the said Purpose.—The Establishment of the Seven Police Offices, their Receipt and Expenditure.—The Establishment, &c. of the Public-Office, Bow-Street.—Together with Observations on the System of transporting Convicts to Botany-Bay, the Expence incurred thereby, and the Maintenance of the Colony. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds, &c. 1799.*

THE principal subject to which this report relates is of very momentous and universal concern. With the Police of the Metropolis, every man who resides in it, and the immense numbers who daily crowd thither from the interior of the island, and from foreign countries, are immediately and deeply interested; inasmuch as the safety of their lives, and of their property, must in a great measure depend on the vigilance with which crimes are prevented, or the promptitude with which they are detected and punished. It is therefore with great pleasure that we observe the Legislature seriously engaged in considering a plan for the melioration of the Police of the Capital; which, every man of common observation must acknowledge, has hitherto laboured under some radical defect;—some inadequacy fully to answer the great ends of its institution.

This report is dated June 26, 1798. The committee sat in the preceding session; and in the report which they then presented, they advised either the consolidation of the two offices of Hawkers and Pedlars, and of Hackney Coaches, as being singly inefficient with respect to Police, and at the same time expensive; or that they might both be abolished, and their duties respectively assigned to the Office of Stamps, and to the Magistracy of the metropolis; or lastly, that, if the Hackney Coach Office should be retained as a distinct establishment, a material retrenchment might be made in its expenditure. In this report of 1798, they declare their opinion that much more salutary effects with respect to Police may be derived from a plan to which they refer, drawn up by Messrs. Colquhoun and Poole, and which they annex to their discussion, than from any of the schemes which the committee submitted in their report of the last year. They then go on to trace the principal defects of the several branches of Police,

as they affect the security of the person or the property of the peaceful subject, the morals of the people, and the general finances of the country:—they shew that the existing Police establishments were in want of many of those means of information and powers of action, which are most likely to operate beneficially towards the prevention of crimes; that the principal places of confinement and modes of punishment, so far from effecting the correction and reformation of the criminal, tend to send him forth, after his imprisonment is ended, more confirmed in vice; and, finally, that this erroneous and defective system of police was yet inordinately expensive:—the whole annual disbursements attending the Criminal Police in Great Britain amounting to 234,153 l. 14s. 7½d. Of the expence and the effects of the system of the hulks, they give the most discouraging accounts; representing the annual cost of each convict employed in them, deducting the value of his labour, at 12 l. 13 s. 7 d.; and stating, on the authority of Mr. Colquhoun, (an experienced magistrate,) that “seldom or never is an instance known of an individual discharged from the hulks, who returned to honest industry.” As little do the Committee say in favour of transportation to Botany Bay; describing the annual expence of each convict who is sent thither as amounting to the enormous sum of 44 l. 19s. 1 d. which is compensated by no one public benefit, since the convicts who come back to England return but to afflict society with crimes of a still deeper die: while any advantages to be expected from the establishment of a colony, which may ultimately repay its expence by commercial advantages, are far too problematical and distant to be admitted into a sober calculation.

To correct these defects in the system of Police, and to diminish this extravagant expenditure incurred by the present mode of treating convicts, the committee propose two grand remedies. The first is the adoption of the system of Police suggested by Messrs. Colquhoun and Poole, and which consists in the establishment of one Great Board of Police Revenue, to be formed by a competent number of commissioners, with such salaries as should engage talents adequate to the situation: this Board to discharge the duties of the present offices of Hawkers and Pedlars, Hackney Coaches, &c.;—two new offices of Police to be established;—and all the offices to possess a concurrent jurisdiction over the whole metropolis, and the counties of Middlesex, Kent, Essex, and Surrey. They advise also, under this head, that the Attorney General shall be empowered to appoint Counsel for the Crown, with moderate salaries, to conduct all criminal prosecutions;—and that all lodging-

lodging-houses in the metropolis shall be registered, and the proprietors made to pay a very small fine annually.—These, with some minor regulations, constitute the outline of this plan.

The next measure recommended by the Committee relates to the disposal of convicts:—it is simply Mr. Bentham's plan for employing and reforming that description of persons in solitary confinement. The articles of his agreement with Government, and the outline of his plan for the construction of his *Panopticon*, are subjoined in the appendix:—in which the reader will also find several interesting papers respecting the existing police establishments, and the new system proposed by Messrs. Colquhoun and Poole.

Five years have elapsed since Mr. Bentham's plan for employing convicts in solitary confinement was submitted to and approved by Government, but the execution of it has hitherto been delayed principally by the difficulty of finding a proper site for the erection of his *Panopticon*. That difficulty, we are here informed, is now likely soon to be removed. We rejoice, therefore, at the probability that an idea is shortly to be carried into effect, which promises fairly to contribute not more to diminish a very heavy item of public expence, than to promote essentially the interests of humanity and good order, by reclaiming some of the very worst members of the community, and restoring them to society with manners and habits useful to themselves and their country.

ART. XI. *An Essay on the medical Properties of the Digitalis Purpurea, or Fox-Glove.* By John Ferriar, M. D. Physician to the Manchester Infirmary, Dispensary, Lunatic-Hospital, and Asylum. 12mo. pp. 66. 1s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

THE leaf of the Purple Fox-Glove constitutes a more antient remedy than is commonly supposed. It was one of the articles of the *Materia Medica* of the *Pharmacopœia Londinensis*, in the different editions of that work in the last century; it was inserted also in the impression published in 1721; was expunged in that of 1746; and was re-instated in the last edition, viz. that of 1788. Yet it is well known to physicians of twenty years' experience, that the Fox-Glove was generally considered as a new remedy when it began to be administered about the year 1785 in London. The revival of the medicine of late years took place at Birmingham, as we have been told on good authority, first by Dr. Ash: but the most certain document of its being brought again to light is in the judicious publication of Dr. Withering *. It is equally well known

* "Account of the Fox-Glove." See M. R. vol. lxxiii. p. 369. that

that the temporary efficacy of the drug, in the case of a popular physician, the late Dr. Huck Saunders, in the year 1785; was the chief occasion of its being again received into the London Pharmacopœia of 1788, and of its frequent use by the London physicians: but only as a remedy for dropsy. We find, however, that Dr. Darwin, twenty years ago, and at that time physician at Litchfield, recommended the *Digitalis* as a remedy not only for dropsy but for pulmonary consumption; see Experiments on mucaginous and purulent Matter.—Cadell. 1780. Other botanical writers (Ray, Parkinson, Salmon, Boerhaave, &c.) speak of the emetic and purgative effects of Fox-Glove, as well as of its efficacy in consumptions, hæmoptœ, epilepsy, and scrophula. It has antiently been used in the form of ointments, and lately Dr. Ferriar has applied the infusion as a lotion in dropsical inflammations. In all likelihood, this virulent medicine fell into discredit and disuse among regular practitioners, from the intolerable nausea and frequently poisonous effects produced by it: but still recipes for it were preserved in private families; and, in provincial situations, the leaves were collected for use, especially in dropsies.

This brief and imperfect history does not serve greatly to encourage us in the farther trials of the deleterious plant in question; seeing that it has already been very extensively tried for a great length of time, without that success which can render us sanguine. Nevertheless, as a remedy in dropsies, the *Digitalis* has maintained some ground in practice ever since Dr. Withering's publication in 1785: but it is only within these two, or at most three years, that it has been much recommended for consumptions, and some other diseases. Among a number of tracts of the present day on the virtues of *Digitalis*, is the one before us by a respectable practitioner; of which it is our duty now to give a faithful representation.

From the following paragraph in the preface, we have a right to expect good evidence to warrant the Author's opinion:

'I have been careful not to over-estimate the powers of *Digitalis*, and I hope that I have not been mistaken in repeated observations: at present, I regard it as a remedy of the highest class: its exhibition has become as familiar in my practice, as that of Peruvian Bark or Opium, with which it deserves to be ranked, and I give it with as little dread, (though never without caution) as either of those medicines. If I am not greatly deceived, it will be found eminently serviceable in a wide range of diseases; and in the present state of our knowledge, the investigation of its effects promises ample scope for the exercise of skill and ingenuity.'

It is from the action of the remedy on the arterial system, that Dr. F. expects the most beneficial effects. 'If any man,'

says he, 'had expressed an opinion, a few years ago, that we should discover a medicine capable of reducing the pulse, without danger, from 120 in a minute, to 75 or 80, at the will of the practitioner, he would have been ridiculed as a visionary: Such, however, under proper management, is the power of the Digitalis.' Another ingenious author expresses himself in much more confident terms: "I daily see many patients in pulmonary consumption advancing towards recovery with so firm a pace, that I hope consumption will henceforward be as regularly cured by the Fox-Glove as ague by Peruvian Bark." (Dr. Beddoes *.)—Our readers shall now judge of Dr. Ferriar's evidence for the efficacy of the present remedy, in *active hæmorrhage*; in which disease he gives it freely in private and hospital practice.

A case is related of *Epistaxis*, and others of *Menorrhagia*. In the latter disease, the discharge stopped on the first dose of Fox-Glove in powder. The true characteristic of the medicine is its reducing the pulse, although it often at the same time increases the urinary secretion. The *rationale* of its action in hæmorrhage is referred to its sedative effect on the arterial system, and to its diuretic power, conjointly.

On the subject of hæmorrhage, from the Nose especially, but also from the uterus, every experienced practitioner must know that the virtues of medicines are rendered equivocal by the discharges spontaneously curing themselves; and we cannot immediately impute the cessation of the discharge to the medicines, without much more extensive and varied trials. Nevertheless, we approve of the Fox-Glove being preserved as a resource, although it is not likely to be ever wanted in epistaxis, and but rarely in menorrhagia.

The author next gives an account of the remedy in question from his experience in the first stages of pulmonary consumption, of the kinds called scrophulous. The chief principle on which the Digitalis was used was, to diminish the impetus of the circulation, which may lead to a suspension of the diseased action. Fox-Glove was also expected to be beneficial, like squill, from its diuretic power; and, in the advanced stages, it was hoped that the hectic fever might be abated by its effects as a sedative. Half a grain at bed-time was given at first, and then gradually increased to two or three grains in a day. The symptoms were removed or abated, in a number of cases: but Dr. F. owns that he was generally disappointed, as the disease broke out again, and with more rapidity in consequence of the transient delay. Yet he considers Digitalis as a valuable remedy, if it should only mitigate the sufferings

* See Rev. vol. xxix. N. S. p. 281.

and prolong life : but opium gives great temporary relief, while, by suppressing expectoration, it hurries the patient into his grave.

Dr. Ferriar adds that the Digitalis, in combination with the use of *Ferrum vitriolatum* and myrrh, and also with bark and other tonics, in the *scrophulous consumption*, is very efficacious; while the Digitalis with opium, mucilaginous medicines, and diuretics, may be opposed to the *florid consumption*. It appears, then, that Digitalis has not been found to cure, but frequently to palliate the symptoms of phthisis.

The author next speaks of this remedy in cases of spasmodic asthma; in which it has been serviceable in conjunction with opium, by suspending the symptoms; as appeared from the return of them when it was omitted.

In coughs, from water in the chest, attended with anasarca of the lower extremities, the Digitalis is asserted to have given more relief than any other medicine.

In palpitations of the heart, this remedy has been found serviceable, when they have depended on the passions; and even in 'organic lesions.'

In dropsies which do not bear purgatives, the Digitalis in half-grain-doses, every 5 to 8 hours, till it alters the pulse, is beneficial: but, if it does not act speedily as a hydragogue or a diuretic, it is useless to persevere in it.

Though unsuccessful alone, we are told that Digitalis becomes efficacious on being joined with calomel and Dover's powder. From a theoretical principle, not from experience, the Digitalis is considered as a valuable remedy in hydrocephalus; in all active inflammations; in gangrene; in croup; and perhaps as an injection in gonorrhœa. In mania, the trial was unsuccessful.

Dr. Percival, in a letter subjoined to this pamphlet, agrees with the author in his experience of the Fox-Glove in dropsies and consumptions. He gives the medicine along with opium and *flores benzoës*, each one grain in the course of a day. What was remarkable, opium in every other form and combination disagreed with a patient, but in this produced no inconvenience.—It is also suggested that Fox-Glove may act in cases of hæmoptœ, in a way analogous to the effect of ipecacuanha, as many years ago prescribed by Dr. Bryan Robinson, of Dublin.

Digitalis is also recommended by Mr. Simmons, to aid in the absorption of Pus in deeply seated abscesses; and, lastly, lotions of infusion of Fox-Glove, in herpetic eruptions, inflammations of the skin, and eruptions of different kinds on the face.

To the result of the experience of the Manchester practitioners, may be added, from other publications, that of Mr. Henry, in favor of the opium with Fox-Glove, in cases of harassing coughs and consumptions; although he says *he never knew a formed phthisis cured by it*. He has used it also in active hæmorrhages, and in acute rheumatism: but then opium, in the dose of a grain, was given with half a grain of Fox-Glove.

Dr. Maclean seems to coincide very nearly with Dr. Ferriar. He says "I have found it (Fox-Glove) a most valuable remedy; and although I trust it will be found by others the most efficacious that has hitherto been resorted to, yet its powers are limited, even, in the early stages of consumption." The formula used was the tincture of Digitalis. This remedy he recommends for the whooping cough, asthma, and various other affections of the chest. In the pleurisy, it acted like a charm, and rendered bleeding unnecessary. Epilepsy is another disease in which Digitalis has been serviceable. To produce permanent benefit, the constitution must be kept under its influence for some weeks, by giving gr. i. of the powder, or gtt. xv—xxv. of the tincture, thrice in a day.

Dr. Bree administered the Fox-Glove at Birmingham, in a number of cases of phthisis, without curing, or perhaps being beneficial to any one, as he candidly states.—Dr. Drake * is most sanguine from especially two successful cases of phthisis; and he "is convinced that the Digitalis will be found adequate to the cure of tubercular consumption in even its second stage, and will suspend its progress in almost every instance;—that in catarrh, in hæmoptœ, and in vomica, it will in some measure approach to what is commonly implied by the term Specific."—Dr. Fowler † relates some favorable cases of the treatment of phthisis with the Fox-Glove.

From these additional results, it appears that practitioners by no means agree in their accounts. We may conclude, however, very justifiably, 1. That the evidence of the cure of a real pulmonary consumption by Digitalis is equivocal. 2. That its power of suspending the progress of the disease is equally equivocal. 3. That, in many cases, it disorders the stomach, and the whole constitution. Evidence might be collected of fifty remedies occasionally being followed by a cure of consumption, and frequently by benefit: but they have on subsequent trials been found to fail. However, we do not wish to extinguish inquiry, because we trust that good will in some way arise from it.

* See Review for September last, p. 70. † Ibid. p. 71.

ART. XII. *Biographical Memoirs of the French Revolution.* By John Adolphus, F. S. A. 8vo. 2 Vols. About 500 Pages in each. 16s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

WE are assured by the author of these memoirs, that 'he has made it his business faithfully and diligently to examine both sides of the question; to select, combine, and compare the discordant accounts of the same transaction; to weigh the motives which various parties have assigned for their own conduct and that of their opponents; and to draw such probable results as were warranted by circumstances and authorities.' This is certainly the duty of the historian: but the author of this work lives too near to the political agitations which he undertakes to describe, to be supposed capable of strict impartiality. A French writer says, "*Les événemens actuels sont comme ces pâtés, qui ne deviennent bons à manger que lorsqu'ils sont refroidis.*" (Mercier.) If in general this principle holds true, it applies with peculiar fitness to the events of the French Revolution; which have convulsed all Europe, affected the recesses of literature, and destroyed the tranquil contemplations of the philosopher in his closet.

Mr. Adolphus has certainly performed his task as well as he could; and we would not impute to him any 'intended error:' but we must suggest to him, and to his readers, the extreme difficulty of now executing such a work as he has undertaken, to the satisfaction of posterity. When parties run high; betraying the most intemperate and sanguinary ferocity, writers on each side will partake of the violence of their adherents; will assert and deny with the boldest effrontery; and will not only give their own colouring to facts, but will often think themselves bound to misrepresent them, and to substitute palpable falsehoods in the room of truth. Hence a multitude of authorities (if they be indeed deserving of such a name) are at hand, ready to be quoted as occasions may serve; and two historians, viewing the same series of events through the medium of different principles, will both be able to fill their margins with references in support of the most jarring statements and opinions. Even in tranquil times, it is difficult to obtain the strict historical truth*.

We are told in Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, (Vol. i. p. 562.) that he said to his son *Horace*, (the late Lord Orford,) who was preparing to read some historical performance, "O! do not read history; for that I know must be

* An ingenious modern writer (Dr. Ferriar) observes "that, in books of good character, we find more facts than can be credited."

false." Here, no doubt, the statesman spoke from his own experience; and we deem it an anecdote which highly merits the attention of all compilers of history, and of what may be called political biography. *Things as they are* seldom are permitted to pass to the knowledge of the public. The ingenuity and cunning of politicians are not unfrequently employed to conceal or misrepresent facts; and venal writers are easily found, who, at their nod, are ready to construct a tissue of lies to serve the views and purposes of their employers. It requires, therefore, a mind freed from the influence of party, and possessed of uncommon penetration, to detect the various deceptive attempts of the writers of newspapers, journals, gazettes, and pamphlets of the day; and to do justice to the characters of those who "have strutted and fretted their hour on the stage" of public life.

A good historian must possess and will exert a considerable degree of scepticism. He will weigh probability against evidence, and will always discover extreme reluctance in outraging this probability. We think that Mr. Adolphus has not been sufficiently cautious on this head. His abhorrence of the French Revolution, and his condemnation of those who have acted a conspicuous part in it, not only carry him beyond the temperance of the philosophic historian, but induce him to affix credibility to relations which, hereafter, will probably be found to have arisen from the violence of party.

There can be no reason for palliating the horrible crimes and enormities which have been committed during the periods of the French Revolution: but they should be related faithfully, and not with the admission of improbable fictions and extravagant exaggerations.

These memoirs have been compiled with great diligence, and are written with much spirit. Except the section which contains the history of the unfortunate Louis XVI. and of his Queen and family, Mr. Adolphus has given the biography of men black with crimes. As the work is without index or table of contents, we shall give a list of the *dramatis personæ*, that our readers may form an idea of the subjects introduced.

Vol. I. contains Memoirs of Louis XVI. the Queen, Princess Elizabeth, and the Dauphin—of *Jean Silvain Bailly—Benoit—Pierre-Guillaume Benoit—Etienne-Charles de Lomenis de Brienne—Jaques Pierre Brissot—Chabot—Anacharsis Clootz—George Jaques Danton—Camille Desmoulins—Charles François Dumouriez—P. F. N. Fabre, d'Eglantine—Thomas Mahé Mairquis de Favras—Gobet—Jaques René Hebert—F. Henriot.*

Vol. II. contains Memoirs of *Michel, Lepelletier de Saint Fargeau—Pierre Manuel—Jean Paul Marat—Gabriel-Honore*

Riquetti Comte de Mirabeau—Jaques Necker—Louis-Philippe—Joseph Duc d'Orléans—Thomas Paine—Jerome Petion—Maximilien Robespierre.

To write the lives of these men is in fact to write the history of the French Revolution, and to discuss its most affecting, atrocious, and bloody details. How Mr. Adolphus has executed this task may be seen by adducing a few specimens.

The following observations are made on the character of Louis XVI.

'The efforts of calumny have been so great and so successful, that the evidence of all his friends, and even the reluctant testimony of his enemies, have been insufficient to rescue his fame from obloquy. The want of firmness and courage is the principal fault, and the one most generally attributed to him; but that seems to result from a judgment formed on subsequent events, and from not duly considering his character in other particulars. The king certainly did not possess that active courage which prompts resistance, and produces magnanimous efforts; but in all his sufferings he displayed an energetic presence of mind, which demonstrated that no exertion was too great for him, had his personal danger been the only obstacle. Could Louis have foreseen the events of the revolution so far as they personally affected him, it is very much to be doubted whether he would have altered his conduct, whether he would not have sacrificed his crown and his life rather than have resorted to measures which had a tendency to involve his country in a war, either civil or foreign. Averse to force, policy could alone prevent the incroachments of faction, and preserve the existence of royalty. The circumstances in which he was placed were so new, that experience, or any judgment formed on the experience of others, could not avail him. Advisers were so numerous, so specious, so contradictory, and so unsuccessful, that it is not wonderful that he is censured by so many writers for not adhering implicitly to their plans. His interrogatory, and his last will, remain undeniable testimonials of the quickness and correctness of his judgment, and the sincerity and goodness of his heart. His conduct on the most trying occasions, particularly the various insurrections which disgraced the latter years of his reign, denote his magnanimity; and his conduct, from the time his trial commenced till the moment which terminated his existence, forms a picture of excellence almost surpassing humanity, and demonstrates the transcendent benefits of that religious purity which takes the sense of shame from premeditated ignominy, which deprives cruelty of its venom, and death of its sting.

'Such was the man whom his ill fate doomed to reign over the French in an age when these virtues insured ruin instead of respect! Such was the man whose murder is still annually celebrated by an inhuman and impious festival.'

It may not be uninteresting to subjoin the writer's character of the Queen:

'Marie Antoinette was sacrificed, to the inhospitable rage of the French nation, in the thirty-eighth year of her age. Of her early

charms, and their premature decline, I have already spoken. The system of calumny pursued against her was so general and so extensive, that to undertake her total exculpation seems almost Quixotism. The principal charges advanced by her enemies are, dilapidation of the finances by her private expences, and by large remittances to her brother the emperor; and matrimonial infidelity. On the subject of her private expences the reader is referred to the preceding pages of this essay. With respect to the sums transmitted to the emperor, many assertions have been made, without the adduction of a single proof written or oral. Had the fact been so, neither kind of proof could have been wanting; the absence of proof supplies the greatest probability, or rather certainty, that the accusation was unfounded. Her explanation on this subject in the course of her interrogatory, is clear, precise, and satisfactory. It was as follows:

*“Observation.—*Not content with dilapidating, in a shocking manner, the finances of France, the fruits of the sweat of the people, for the sake of her pleasures and intrigues, in concert with infamous ministers, she had sent to the emperor thousands of millions to serve against the nation which fostered her.

*“Answer.—*Never:—I know this mean artifice has often been employed to my prejudice; I loved my husband too much to dilapidate the treasure of his country. My brother did not want money from France, and from the same principle which attached me to France, I would not have given him any.”

This unfounded accusation is still further refuted by the contradiction of those from whom it originated, who, while they charged the queen with dilapidations amounting to *thousands of millions*, implicated her in a disgraceful trick, which, if successful, would have produced only one million of livres (43,750*l.*) to be shared between her and six or seven sharers.

The other point of accusation, matrimonial infidelity, is supported by assertions so numerous, that individuals are fearful of expressing doubts on a subject which seems so strongly advanced. The nature of the charge resists the demand of evidence from those who detail it; yet it might be supposed from the number of instances adduced, (for there was hardly a courtier of figure or a traveller of consequence that was not ranked among her favourites,) that some proof would in the course of the revolution have come to light. But even on her trial, though the fact was alledged in the most indecent terms, the proof was not attempted. The circumstantial evidence is decidedly on the other side; for if we lay no stress on the fidelity and courage with which the queen, in the most trying situations, fulfilled the duties of wife and mother, still it appears impossible that she should have been beloved as she was by her husband, had a single fact advanced against her been true, or the suspicion in any wise founded. That she could have conducted her intrigues in private is impossible; because from the moment of her arrival in France to that of her death, she was surrounded with spies and enemies. If the slightest of these accusations had been true, it is not possible that she should have retained to his last hour the warmest affections of a king, who united with the most inflexible virtue, the highest sense of honour, and the greatest hor-

ror of impropriety. Could the queen in such a case have possessed the esteem and affection of the unsullied, and uncalumniated princess Elizabeth, so firmly, that on the celebrated twentieth of June, she offered to lose her own life for her protection? The queen's own declaration at the time when she was pleading for her fame, without hope of her life, is remarkable, and convincing from its genuine appearance of candor and virtuous defiance. Speaking of *Trianon*, the supposed seat of her voluptuous revels, she said: "I wish more than any one, that every thing which took place there may be made public."

The following description of the Conciergerie may be somewhat exaggerated: but that it was a scene of horror during the sanguinary reign of Robespierre, all must agree:

The Conciergerie, during the old government, was a prison for the worst malefactors; with whom it was shared, under the revolutionary government, by those who were arrested as suspected, or had been condemned by the dreadful tribunal, and were awaiting the execution of their sentence. Its cells are subterraneous; over them are shops and walks where the gaiety and profusion of all comers mark in strong colours the contrasted woes and penury of the unfortunate prisoners. Four wickets, at small distances from each other, secured the entrance to this horrible prison, each guarded by wretches taken from the dregs of vulgar brutality; disgusting from vice, filth, and inebriety, and speaking a language peculiar to their occupation, in English called *slang*. Between the two first doors the prisoner was introduced to the turnkey, who, attended by some myrmidons, examined his features, gave orders for his reception, and passed him on through the other wickets. The place in which prisoners were at first lodged, was called the *souricière*, or mouse-trap, a dungeon impervious to the rays of the sun, and exhaling an infectious odour, from the accumulated filth of persons who had previously occupied it. The straw provided for a bed was rotten with damp and filth, and the rats ate the shoes, the clothes, and even the flesh of the unhappy tenant. In this infernal abode they were sometimes left for thirty-six or forty-eight hours, without relief, without communication, without food. They were afterwards transferred to some other chamber, or to a different prison. The distinction of apartments in the Conciergerie was made by the terms *à la pistole*, in the straw, or in the dungeons. The first set were denominated from the monthly price paid for a wretched bed; the others were only distinguished from each other by this, that those in the straw were turned out of their apartments between eight and nine in the morning, and not permitted to re-enter them till about an hour before sun-set, while those in the dungeons were confined all day. The accumulation of prisoners was alike in all; the increasing rigor of the revolutionary government caused arrestations so numerous, that many persons could not find room in the cells, and were obliged to take up their abode in the galleries. The whole prison, from crowd, dirt, want of air, and other incommunities, was so unwholesome, that the confined fell ill and died in such quantities as to exceed credibility.

Of the Duke of Orleans, we may say that "*nothing in his life became him like the leaving it.*" Mr. A.'s remarks on his unexpected fortitude in meeting death, and on his character, must finish our extracts from these memoirs:

“ He was drawn to the *Place de la Revolution* in a cart, with four other persons, who displayed the most dreadful apprehensions; but, on this awful occasion, Orleans exhibited an elevation of mind, which, had it been his portion in more prosperous days, would have insured him happiness and reputation. His being intended for execution on that day was so little known in Paris, that very few people were present when first he ascended the cart, but the rumour soon flew and attracted innumerable gazers. They reproached him in the coarsest terms with all the crimes of his past life, his debaucheries, his assassinations, his perfidy, his vote against the king, every thing memory could suggest. When the cart reached the *palais royal*, with a refinement in cruelty truly Parisian, they made it stop ten minutes, to observe the effect produced by contemplating the scene of his grandeur and debaucheries. On this great day he disappointed the hopes of malevolence; he maintained, during his whole progress, a serenity of countenance and dignity of deportment altogether princely. He looked at the *palais royal*, and read the inscription on the front denoting it to be national property, without the least apparent emotion. The populace, disappointed of their expected entertainment, at length permitted him to proceed. At a small distance from the place of execution he entered into conversation with a priest who was allowed to attend the prisoners, and so continued till he came to the foot of the scaffold, where, without losing for a moment the intrepidity so recently acquired, he submitted to the knife of the guillotine, which terminated his existence in the forty-seventh year of his age, in less than ten months after the murder of the king, which he had occasioned by so much expence, so much intrigue, and so many crimes. His body was thrown without distinction amid the croud of carcases which daily butchery consigned to the burying-ground of St. Mary Magdalen.

“ Thus perished this abandoned prince, whom it is now a common mode of speech to call *the monster Egalité*. He subverted a throne without courage or consistency sufficient to avail himself of the result of his own efforts; and squandered an immense fortune with so little judgment, that at his death he scarcely possessed a single friend. He was tacitly excepted, after the fall of Robespierre, from the vote of censure which the *modérés* caused to be passed on the murderers of the other deputies, as no one had integrity or courage enough to propose including him in the list. His name will remain to posterity a perpetual warning to individuals of overgrown property, against the folly of entering into popular conspiracies, and becoming the dupes of men of desperate fortune and daring ambition.”

Sana posteritas will better appreciate the characters of the French Revolutionists than we can at this period; and will develop the sources and springs of that great movement which subverted the French Monarchy, and gave being to republicanism.

anism. At present, the causes assigned by writers do not fully account for the effect. It is impossible, however, to be conducted over this field of blood by a writer of any party, without making a comparison between the French and English character, highly in favour of the latter. Far be from us the event of a Revolution!—but, were such a calamity to befall us, and were the convulsion ever so great, we are confident that it would not be so blackened with horrors and with crimes, as the French Revolution has been; nor would it call forth to public execration such a legion of miscreants.

ART. XIII. *A Journal of the most remarkable Occurrences that took place in Rome, upon the Subversion of the Ecclesiastical Government in 1798.* By Richard Duppa. 8vo. pp. 149. 4s. Boards. Robinsons. 1799.

A brief Account of the Subversion of the Papal Government, 1798. Second Edition. By Richard Duppa. 8vo. pp. 197. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1799.

WHILE we were preparing an account of the first edition of this work, we were informed that a second impression would soon appear; we therefore delayed our notice of it, and have now to state that the chief alterations in the new volume are to be found in the beginning of the first, third, and fourth sections; with the addition of some notes, a translation of all the original papers, a medallion of the Pope, some other plates illustrative of the subjects of which the author treats, a plan of Rome, and a map of the Ecclesiastical State.

To those who wish to be informed of the manner in which the French have conducted themselves towards those nations to whom they promised the blessings of liberty and equality, this narrative must be highly interesting: it is written with great appearance of truth and candour; and the language is easy, unaffected, and perspicuous.

The following quotation will convey a striking example of French humanity and delicacy:

‘That the head of the church might be made to feel with more poignancy his humiliating situation, the day chosen for planting the tree of liberty on the capitol was the anniversary of his election to the sovereignty. Whilst he was, according to custom, in the Sistine chapel celebrating his accession to the papal chair, and receiving the congratulations of the Cardinals, Citizen Haller, the commissary-general, and Ceryoni, who then commanded the French troops within the city, gratified themselves in a peculiar triumph over this unfortunate potentate. During that ceremony they both entered the chapel, and Haller announced to the sovereign Pontiff on his throne, that his reign was at an end.

‘ The

‘ The poor old man seemed shocked at the abruptness of this unexpected notice, but soon recovered himself with becoming fortitude; and when General Cervoni, adding ridicule to oppression, presented him the national cockade, he rejected it with a dignity that shewed he was still superior to his misfortunes. At the same time that his Holiness received this notice of the dissolution of his power, his Swiss guards were dismissed, and Republican soldiers put in their place.’

The character of a nation, like that of an individual, will not perhaps admit of a sudden and total change; this remark is exemplified in the French; who, even when they affect to assume the stern manners of Republicans, cannot divest themselves of their frivolous and fantastical turn, and of that fondness for pomp and show by which they were always distinguished. The following account of the re-establishment of the Roman republic, we are of opinion, will confirm the truth of our assertion.

‘ The Federation.

‘ That the re-generated Roman people might be constitutionally confirmed in their newly-acquired rights, a day was set apart solemnly to renounce their old government, and swear fidelity to the new. For the celebration of this solemnity, which took place on the 20th of March, an altar was erected, in the middle of the piazza of St. Peter’s, with three statues upon it, representing the French, Cisalpine, and Roman republics. Behind the altar was a large tent, covered and decorated with silk of the Roman colours, surmounted with a red cap, to receive the deputies from the departments who had been summoned to assist. Before the altar was placed an open orchestra, filled with the same band that had before been employed to celebrate the funeral honours of Duphot. At the foot of the bridge of St. Angelo, in the piazza di Ponte, was erected a triumphal arch, upon the general design of that of Constantine, in the Campo Vacino, on the top of which was also placed three colossal figures, representing the three republics. As a substitute for bass-reliefs, it was painted in compartments in *chiara scura*, representing the most distinguished actions of Buonaparte in Italy. Before this arch was another orchestra.

‘ The ceremony in the piazza began by the marching in of the Roman legion, which was drawn up close to the colonnade, forming a semicircular line; then came French infantry; and then cavalry, one regiment after another alternately, drawn up in separate detachments round the piazza. When all was thus in order, the consuls made their entrance, on foot, from the Vatican palace, where they had robed themselves, preceded by a company of national troops and a band of music; and if the weather had permitted, a procession of citizens, selected, and dressed in *gala*, for the occasion, from the age of five years to fifty, were to have walked two and two carrying olive branches; but an excessively heavy rain prevented this part of the ceremony.

‘ Before

‘ Before the high altar, on which were placed the statues, there was another smaller one with fire upon it. Over this fire the consuls, stretching out their hands, swore eternal hatred to monarchies and fidelity to the republic; and at the conclusion one of them committed to the flames a scroll of paper he held in his hand, containing a representation of all the insignia of royalty, as a crown, a sceptre, a tiara, &c. after which the French troops fired a round of musketry, and at a signal given, the Roman legion raised their hats in the air upon the points of their bayonets, as a demonstration of attachment to the new government: but there was no shouting—no voluntary signs of approbation; nor do I believe that there ever was a show, in which the people were intended to act so principal a part, where so decided a tacit disapprobation was given as on this occasion.

‘ After the ceremony was concluded, the French officers, with the consuls and deputies from the departments, dined together in the papal palace on Monte Cavallo, and in the evening gave a magnificent ball to the exnobles and others their partizans, which was numerously attended, yet with an exception to the houses Borghese, Santacroce, Altamp, and Cesarini: I believe not one distinguished family was present from desire or inclination: but it was now no longer time to accumulate additional causes for oppression, and he who hoped to save a remnant of his property, avoided giving occasion for personal resentment. At night the dome of St. Peter’s was illuminated, with the same splendor as was customary on the anniversary of St. Peter’s day. This was the second time of its illumination since the arrival of the French, having been before displayed on the evening of the solemn Fete to honour the manes of Duphot, which, though not quite so opportune, was done to gratify the officers that were to leave Rome on the morrow.

‘ The day after this federation, the French published the Roman constitution in form, which was only a repetition of the one given to the unfortunate Venetians, consisting of three hundred and seventy-two articles, and which I think unnecessary to transcribe, as it would only be giving what we have already had from time to time in translations made from their own.

‘ The provisional consuls, who were at first seven, were now reduced to five, to exercise the same functions as had been before prescribed to their office; composing a directory, under the direction of the French General, as Commander-in-chief. “Tutte le nomine, tutte le leggi, e tutti gli atti del governo sono sottoposti alla sanzione de generale in capite dell’ armata Francese.” Besides this branch of legislative authority, there was a nomination of thirty-two senators, corresponding to the council of the ancients in France; and seventy-two tribunes, called the representatives of the people; who were employed in argument, and the discussion of questions, of equal importance to the welfare of their country with those which occupied the Rump parliament in the commonwealth of Cromwell.’

In the next section, we have a relation of the establishment of the Jacobin Club in the hall of the Duke d’Altamp’s palace; on which subject the author expresses himself with so much good

good sense, that it would be an act of injustice not to lay his sentiments before our readers:

‘ In order that the spirit of equality might be more extensively diffused, a constitutional democratic club was instituted, and held in the hall of the Duke d’Altemp’s palace. Here the new-born sons of freedom harangued each other on the blessings of emancipation, talked loudly and boldly against all constituted authority, and even their own Consuls; when hardly invested with their robes, became the subjects of censure and abuse. The English were held as particularly odious, and a constant theme of imprecation; and this farce was so ridiculously carried on, that a twopenny subscription was set on foot to reduce what they were pleased to call the proud Carthage of the North.

‘ If this foolish society had had no other object in view than spouting for each other’s amusement, bowing to, and kissing a bust of Brutus which was placed before the rostrum (a ceremony constantly practised before the evening’s debate), it would have been of little consequence to any but the idle, who preferred that mode of spending their time; but it had other objects of a very different tendency, more baseful, and more destructive to the peace and morals of society—that of intoxicating young minds with heterogeneous principles they could not understand, in order to supersede the first laws of nature in all the social duties; for there were not wanting men who knew how to direct the folly and enthusiasm of those who did not know how to direct themselves. Here they were taught that their duty to the Republic ought ever to be paramount to every other obligation; that the illustrious Brutus, whose bust they had before them, and whose patriotic virtue and justice ought never to be lost sight of, furnished them with the strongest, and most heroic example of the subordination of the dearest ties of humanity to the public good; and that, however dear parental affection might be, yet, when put in competition with the general welfare of society, there ought not to be a moment’s hesitation which was to be preferred,

‘ This sort of reasoning might, perhaps, have done no harm to the speculative closet metaphysician, who might have had neither father, nor mother, nor brother, nor sister, nor a chance of ever being thrown in the way to reduce his theory to practice; but with a people who knew of no other ties but such as depended on their religion, and their natural feelings, without having been previously educated to discriminate how far the reason might be deluded by sophistry, or upon what causes the permanent good of society depended, it had the most direct tendency to generate the worst passions, and to annihilate the best.

‘ Young men were thus initiated to lose all respect for their parents and relations, and even encouraged to lodge information against them, with the hopeful prospect of being considered as deserving well, of what they were pleased to denominate, the republic; and by thus weakening or destroying the bonds of affection, the way was made smooth and easy to the destruction of every thing, like what, in a state of civilization, is called character; doubtless, in order to prepare

prepare them the better to become the faithful agents of those whom they were thus educated to serve.'

The last section contains a summary view of the conduct of the French in Rome; sufficiently full to convey a clear idea of their duplicity, art, and rapacity, and at the same time so concise as scarcely to admit of an abridgment: we shall therefore make use of the author's words:

'It was when the French were at the gates of Rome, that I myself looked with anxious, though clouded, expectation, for the realizing those theories of republican virtue, that had sometimes served to amuse the speculations of a leisure hour. The opening of the scene was highly favourable to the most flattering hope, both of liberality and justice. In one and the same day all right of conquest was relinquished, and Rome declared a free and independent government: to exercise whose functions, the honestest, the ablest, and the best men that could be chosen out of that party were selected. This was even consolatory to the enemies of the revolution, but it was of short duration; for the men that were made ostensible to the Roman people as provisionary governors, soon found that their power was hardly even the shadow of authority. They were made use of only to shew where, and in what consisted the little remaining wealth of the state, and politely compelled to give their assent, that this little might be taken from it: they had also the privilege of issuing edicts; which privilege they were compelled to exercise, for oppressing the people beyond all example, of even the greatest despotism of ancient times; and were thus made obnoxious, without even deriving any profit from the plunder that was exacted under their names. Hence, as might be easily expected, those who felt the least regard for their own personal characters soon withdrew themselves, or, by making opposition to such measures, were compelled by others to retire.

'The vacancies produced were then filled up by men of unscrutinized characters, who in this opportunity boldly stepped forward to recommend themselves, through the interest of their money, or other collateral means, and were nominated, as those means seemed to bear a proportion to their pretensions.

'This mode of electing men into office had many advantages. The individuals who had the power of disposing of such places became enriched, their orders were not likely to be disobeyed or reluctantly complied with, and as these agents were to have their percentage, so they would be likely to take good care that their masters should have no reason to complain of any deficiency in the military chest.

'When this was done, and Generals and Commissaries had glutted themselves with wealth, quarrelled about a just division of the spoil, mutinied, and dispersed; other unpaid, unclothed, unprovisioned armies from the north, with new appointments, succeeded; and when at length, even by these constitutional means, nothing more was to be obtained, and artifice had exhausted every resource, the mask was put under the feet that had been long held in the hand: liberty was declared dangerous to the safety of the Republic, the constituted authority

authority incapable of managing the affairs of the state, and military law the only rational expedient to supply their place. Thus at once the mockery of consular dignity was put an end to, the senators sent home to take care of their families, and the tribunes to blend with the people, whom they before represented. This new and preferable system began its operations with nothing less important for the general welfare, than seizing the whole annual revenue of every estate productive of more than ten thousand crowns; two-thirds of every estate that produced more than five, but less than ten; and one-half of every inferior annual income.

‘ This, in a few words, has been the progressive conduct of the Great Nation towards an injured and oppressed people, whose happiness and dearest interests were its first care, and to whom *freedom* and *liberty* had been restored, that they might know how to appreciate the virtue of their benefactors, and the inestimable blessings of independence.’

We cannot dismiss this work without bestowing praise on the author, for the manly and temperate spirit which he has displayed, on a subject on which the passions of human nature would not permit every man to write without acrimony and violence.

ART. XIV. *An Illustration of the Roman Antiquities discovered at Bath.* By the Rev. Richard Warner, Curate of St. James's Parish. Published by order of the Mayor and Corporation at Bath. 4to. pp. 120. and Plates. 7s. 6d. Boards. Dilly. 1797.*

IT is probable that the city of Bath, if not originally built by the Romans, was at least reduced under their power and embellished by their arts as early as the middle of the first century; when, in the reign of Claudius, (according to Tacitus,) the western and south-western parts of this island were completely subdued by Flavius Vespasian. Attracted by the medicinal and warm springs which they here found, and which afforded easy means of indulging in that prime enjoyment of Roman luxury, the Bath, the Roman soldiers there fixed one of their principal stations. *Aque Solis*, the name by which they designated this delightful residence, was soon established as a Colony; and in course became entitled to the privilege, which all the Roman colonies enjoyed, of minting its own money. It is to be conjectured, also, that a military forge, or college of armourers, was erected here for the purpose of fabricating legionary arms, under the authority of a Roman government.

* This work has accidentally been mislaid on our back-shelves, and overlooked.

Invested

Invested with such privileges, and possessing charms so well calculated to render it a favourite seat of the luxurious conquerors, Bath would naturally soon become a splendid and extensive settlement. Accordingly, our antiquaries, by tracing the remains of the Roman city, find it to have been twelve hundred feet in length, and eleven hundred in breadth; surrounded by a wall nine feet thick, and twenty in height; and comprizing spacious and magnificent baths, a superb temple dedicated to Minerva, with a variety of other temples, votive altars, statues, &c. From the middle of the first to the middle of the fifth century, we have reason for believing that Bath continued to be occupied by the Romans. At this latter period, the incursions of the Goths compelled Theodosius the Second to withdraw his legions from the distant provinces, in order to defend the heart of the empire; and then it was that Bath, with the rest of Britain, was reluctantly resigned by its Roman masters, embellished and improved, to the native inhabitants of the island.

In a work professing to describe the Roman antiquities of a city which had so long been in possession of that people, and to whom it probably owed its origin, we are disappointed at finding so few monuments of its former existence as appear in this volume.—Fourteen articles only of this kind are here noticed; namely, four sepulchral stones, five votive altars, a fragment of a statue of Apollo, an altar supposed to be one of the διςωμοι or double kind, dedicated to Jupiter and Hercules Bibax, a head in relief, the fragment of a pediment, and a piece of antique masonry, supposed by the author to have been the *tympanum* of a temple dedicated to Minerva: but which Governor Pownall, in his Tract on the Antiquities of Bath*, conceives to be a fragment of a temple of Sol.

Of these, the sepulchral stones and the votive altars seem to have called for but little ingenuity or antiquarian skill in the explication. They however furnish the author with an opportunity, or a pretext, which he does not let slip, of displaying his store of classical learning. His disquisitions on Roman manners, customs, and mythology, are diffuse and frequent; and they bespeak a familiar acquaintance with the Greek and Latin writers. Perhaps, indeed, it is rather as a scholar than an antiquary, that Mr. Warner best entertains and informs his readers. The following account of one of the votive altars will give an idea of his manner:

* See M. Rev. vol. xix. N. S. p. 58.

* *DEÆ SULINI PRO SALUTE ET INCOLUMITATE AUFIDIJ MAXIMI
LEGIONIS VITÆ VICTRICIS MILITIS AUFIDIUS EJUS LIBERTUS
(pro libertus) VOTUM SOLVIT LIBENS MERITO.*

* This votive altar exhibits another example of the gratitude and piety of the Romans. It was erected by a manumitted slave, in performance of a vow made to the Goddess Sulinis, for the restoration of his master, who had made him free.

* Luxury, of every sort, was carried to a proverbial height by this august nation. But in no article were the Romans more extravagantly profuse, than in the use of slaves; and in the multitude which every citizen of property affected to entertain. The numerous and various offices in their town residences, and country villas; in their gardens, farms, and fields, were filled by these unfortunate beings; over whom the lordly master domineered with the most uncontrolled and discretionary sway*. To such a pitch, indeed, did this vain and cruel custom arrive, that instances are not wanting of a noble Roman possessing a body of ten, and even twenty thousand domestic slaves†. Nor was it at home alone that they manifested this folly; whole troops of these wretched men followed them wherever they went; whether to the courts of justice, or the senate-house; the theatre, the temple, or the bath; *ubi, comitantibus singulos quinquaginta ministris tholos introierent lalncarum*‡.—*Familiarium agmina, tanquam predatorios globos, post terga trahentes; ne Sannione quidem, ut ait Comicus, domi relicto*§; and Horace records Tigellinus as parading the streets of Rome with a retinue of two hundred servi at his heels||.

* With the more humane and reflecting Romans, however, it was not unusual to emancipate their slaves from this cruel state of bondage, in the cases of faithful service and meritorious conduct—This was done by various modes; any one of which converted the *Servus* into a *Libertus*, and though it did not confer on him all the rights and privileges of Roman citizenship, liberated him notwithstanding, forever, from the tyranny of a passionate, or the caprice of a whimsical

* * The numbers of slaves employed by the Romans in their kitchens, and about their persons, must astonish even the most extravagant of our present beaux and epicures.—“*Quam celebres culinæ sunt? Quanta nepotum focus juvenus premit. Transeo pueroꝝum infeliciũ greges, quos, post transacta convivia, alii cubiculi con- tumeliæ expectant. Transeo agmina exoletorum, per nationes coloresque descripta ut eadem omnibus levitas sit, eadem primæ mensura lanuginis, eadem species capillorum, ne quis, cui rector est coma, crispulis misceatur. Transeo pistorum turbam, transeo ministratorum per quos, signo dato, ad inferendam cœnam discurretur. Dii boni!*” (subjoins the philosopher) “*quantum hominum unius Venter exercet.*” Seneca’s Epist:

* † *Μυρίης, καὶ δισμυρίης (οικετας) καὶ ἐπὶ πλείους δὲ ταμιωνοὶ κικτυνται. καὶ τῶν προσώδους δὲ, ὥστε πρὸ τῶν Ἑλλήνων ζαλωντὸς Νικίαι; ; ἀλλ’ αἱ πλείους τὰς Ῥωμαίων συνπρόϊοντας ἔχουσι τῆς πλείους.* Athenæus Dæip. lib. vi.

* ‡ Ammianus, Lib. xxviii.

* § Id. Lib. xiv.

* || Hor. Sat. Lib. i. 3.

lord.

lord.—The only compliment due on this occasion from the manumitted slave to his quondam master, was to adopt his name; a circumstance which, we perceive by our inscription, had not been omitted by the freed man of Aufidius Maximus.

‘The Sixth legion, mentioned on this altar, was transported into Britain, in the time of Hadrian; and probably accompanied that Emperor, when he took this kingdom in the tour of his dominions*. Its first station was somewhere in the North of England, in the neighbourhood of the Vallum, the West end of which it appears to have erected.—Towards the middle of the reign of Antoninus Pius, it moved rather more to the South, and became stationary at York.—Here it continued till the beginning of the fifth century; when it returned to Italy, to assist in supporting the sinking fabric of the empire†.

‘There is no room to suppose the Legion itself was ever at Bath; but from two inscriptions having been found there, in which mention of it occurs, a reasonable conjecture arises, that one of its dispersed cohorts might have been, at least for a time, quartered in this city.

‘This altar was found on the scite of the present Pump-room, about four years since.

‘I have added a representation of the *Focos* or *Thuribulum* on the top of the altar; a cavity intended to receive the libations and frankincense offered to the Deity to whom it was dedicated.’

Prefixed to the work is an Introduction, giving a concise account of the Roman history of Bath.—The fragments of antiquity described and explained in the volume are represented by wooden cuts.

Whether or not this production will be thought by the antiquary to possess much merit is perhaps the less important to the author, as it has already received the sanction of the learning and sagacity of a very *worshipful* body of men, whose names we seldom see connected with a work of this description. It is dedicated to, and published *by order of*, the MAYOR AND CORPORATION OF Bath!

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1800.

MILITARY.

Art. 15. *Pocket Volunteer Cavalry Instructor in the Sword Exercise, in Five Parts: Part 1st, Explaining the offensive Six Cuts, defensive against Cavalry, the Application of the Point, with the*

‘This we have reason to conclude, from the following inscription on an altar given by Gale.—“Imperatoris Divi Hadriani ab actis tribuno militum legionis sextæ victricis cum qua ex Germaniâ in Britanniam transiit.” Galel Anton: Itin. p. 47.’

‘† Horsley’s Brit. Rom. 79, 80.’

REV. JAN. 1800.

G

Cuts

Cuts and Guards against Infantry. Part 2d, Sword Exercise on Foot. Part 3d, Drill on Horseback. Part 4th, Method of Instruction in Classes. Part 5th, Review Exercise, fully explaining the Six Divisions in Line and in Speed, with the Attack and Defence also in Line and in Speed. With Plates, explaining all the Cuts, Guards, and Manœuvres, on Foot and on Horseback. 24°. pp. 86. 3s. 6d. sewed. Low. 1799.

THIS is a very ingenious little work, and we can recommend it as a profitable pocket companion to every cavalry officer or volunteer. The contents are sufficiently set forth in the title-page.

NOVELS.

Art. 16. *Monk-Wood Priory.* By Francis Tracy Thomas, Cornet in the East and West Lothian Light Dragoons. 12mo. 2 Vols. 7s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1799.

This work is derived from the common Stock of ingredients, compounded with flowery sentiment. The principal character is an imitation of Lovelace: but *the happy fate* provided for this gay libertine has, we believe, the merit of novelty.

Art. 17. *The Victim of Prejudice.* By Mary Hays, Author of the *Memoirs of Emma Courtney.* 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1799.

Mary, the heroine of this little tale, is, to the credit of the author's pencil, a spirited and affecting sketch, but somewhat out of nature; and the principle which it is designed to inculcate by no means follows from the premises. By the novels which issue from this school, love, which is a transient passion, is to be complimented, in all cases, at the expence of the regulations and institutions of society; and a respect for virtue and decorum is to be classed in the list of vulgar prejudices. Love, which is generally our happiness, may and will sometimes be our misery. The wisest and the best are often the slaves and victims of circumstances:—Mary is one of those victims,—though amiable, noble, and virtuous, the circumstances of her birth prevented her from being the most eligible match for a man of virtue having virtuous connections, and wishing to have a virtuous offspring. Descended from a mother who was both a prostitute and a murderer, and who expiated her crimes on the gallows, shall we term the objection of the Hon. Mr. Pelham's father to the marriage of his son with her a mere prejudice? Must not William Pelham himself, had he been permitted to marry the lovely and amiable Mary, have had cause to blush when the children who might have been the fruit of their union came to inquire into the history of their mother? According to the fixed laws of nature, we suffer from the vices of our parents; and this, with every wise man, will be a very strong motive to virtue; since the evil resulting from a deviation from her paths will not terminate in ourselves. We must love and pity such a character as Mary Raymond: but her misery results rather from a general sentiment of detestation of atrocious crimes, than from any act which is entitled to the appellation of tyranny.

LAW.

Art. 18. *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the High Court of Admiralty*; commencing with the Judgments of the Right Hon. Sir William Scott, Michaelmas Term 1798. By Chr. Robinson, LL.D. Advocate. Vol. I. Royal 8vo. pp. 196. 5s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

In our thirtieth volume N. S. p. 98, we announced this gentleman's report of a judgment given in the High Court of Admiralty on the Swedish Convoy, and then expressed the pleasure which was felt from the promise that these Reports were to be continued.

The pure and upright administration of municipal laws is an object of great importance to every country; indeed a subject of deeper interest can scarcely be conceived, if we except the enactment of the laws themselves, by the operation of which the lives and properties of individuals are to be protected, or oppressed and injured. The administration, however, of the law of nations, is of more general and extensive concern, as it involves in its discussions and decisions the commercial interests of foreign states; it therefore becomes a measure highly proper and expedient, that it should be generally known both in this country and abroad, in what manner, and on what principles, our tribunals administer this species of law. A publication of this description, when its fidelity and accuracy are unimpeachable, will at least prevent the danger of misrepresentation; a danger to which, from the opposite views and jarring interests of the disputants, jurisdictions of this nature are particularly exposed, and the ill effects of which are obvious and important.

We believe that this is the first instance in which the decisions of the Court of Admiralty have been reported; though many valuable tracts on the law of nations, which must necessarily furnish the ground-work of those decisions, have appeared at different periods. The great variety of cases which have occurred during the present war, the natural interest which attaches itself to a subject of such universal importance, and the high and deserved reputation for splendid abilities, incorruptible integrity, and deep and extensive knowledge, possessed by the Judge who presides in that Court, render this publication at this time highly acceptable.

The questions argued in this volume are of such a nature, that they will not only convey information, but give pleasure to every rational and inquisitive mind; and the general as well as the professional reader will be gratified with the discussions which it contains.—In the case of the ship *Mentor*, it was determined 'that the actual wrong-doer is the only person responsible in the Court of Admiralty for seizure;' the suit therefore against the Admiral of the station was dismissed, he not having been privy to the fact. The discussion produced by this case is curious and interesting; and the decision appears to be perfectly satisfactory, and to have proceeded on just and equitable principles.

The cases here reported are thirty-three in number, and the work is dedicated by permission to Earl Spencer. We trust that the accuracy and diligence shewn by the author, on the present occasion,

will meet with such encouragement from the public as will induce him to persevere in so valuable an undertaking.

Art. 19. *Reports of Cases argued and ruled at Nisi Prius, in the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas, from Easter Term 36 George III. 1796, to Hilary Term 39 George III. 1799.* By Isaac 'Espinasse, of Gray's-Inn, Barrister at Law. Vol. II. Royal 8vo. pp. 300. 10s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

The first volume of this publication was noticed in M. Rev. vol. xxi. N.S. p. 463, and we have now merely to announce to our readers the completion of the second; expressing a wish at the same time, that a greater degree of attention had been bestowed on the correction of the press.

Art. 20. *An Essay on the Learning respecting the Creation and Execution of Powers; and also respecting the Nature and Effect of leasing Powers; in which the Doctrine of the Judgment delivered by the Court of King's Bench, in the Case of Pugh and the Duke of Leeds, and the principal Authorities for and against it, are considered.* By John Joseph Powell, Esq. Barrister at Law, of the Inner Temple: the Second Edition, corrected and enlarged from Modern Determinations. 8vo. pp. 650. 9s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1799

We mentioned the first edition of this useful publication, on a difficult and abstruse subject of our law, in M. Rev. vol. lxxx. p. 69, and in addition to the praise which we then bestowed on the performance, we must now observe that the author has enriched it with the insertion of many cases which have been decided in the interval, and with such remarks as the subjects of them appeared to require.

Art. 21. *An Abridgment of the Modern Determinations in the Courts of Law and Equity, being a Supplement to Viner's Abridgment.* By several Gentlemen in the respective Branches of the Law. Vol. 1st, ABATEMENT—BYE-LAWS. Vol. 2d, CANONS—CREDITOR AND DEBTOR. Royal 8vo. 1l. 8s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

The great work, to which the present publication is intended to form a Supplement, appeared between the years 1741 and 1751; and, though it labours under the faults of an erroneous arrangement and frequent repetitions, it must still be considered as a valuable body of law and equity, and as constituting a necessary part of every lawyer's library. Since the year 1751, a number of excellent reports have been given to the profession; Wilson, Burrow, Cowper, Douglas, and the Term Reports both in the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas, not to mention a great variety of Chancery Reports, have all appeared since that time, and have published many cases which deserved and demanded insertion in a general digest of the law. To accomplish this desirable purpose is the object of the present work, which will be continued till the whole alphabet is completed. We now only announce to our readers the publication of the first two volumes, reserving our opinion of the merits of the execution till the whole performance is before us.

Art. 22. *A Treatise upon the Law of Legacies.* By R. S. Donnison Roper, Esq. of Gray's-Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 250. 4s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

It has been the author's object, in the present performance, to collect most of the cases on personal bequests, and to extract from them principles, (as far as the nature of the subject admits of being reduced to principles or positive rules,) which may be applied to questions in similar circumstances. We do not recollect any work which has treated on legacies alone, though that branch of our law must necessarily find a place in every treatise on the duty of executors, since it constitutes an important part of that duty. For the purpose of avoiding prolixity, Mr. Roper has given references only to the cases; excepting in a few instances, where a statement of the substance or material parts of them appeared necessary to illustrate the reasons on which they were determined. We approve this practice, and greatly prefer it to the usual mode of extracting large portions from the reports; by which means, books are easily made, without trouble or discrimination on the part of the compiler, and the shelves of a lawyer's library are filled again and again with the same matter in different shapes.

We were surprized at not finding, in the chapter which treats 'of the jurisdiction of courts in legatory matters,' the cases of *Atkins against Hill*, B. R. E. 15 Geo. III. Cowp. 284. and *Hawkes against Saunders*, B. R. H. 22 Geo. III. Cowp. 289. in which it was decided that an *assumpsit* lies upon a *promise* by an executor to pay a *legacy* in consideration of *assets*. The subsequent case of *Deeks against Strutt*, B. R. T. 34 Geo. III. 5 T. R. 690. is mentioned by the author, in which it was decided that no action at law lies for a legacy:—but, in this last case, it is observable that no express promise on the part of the defendant was made to pay the legacy; and it was there said that the law will not imply a promise in consideration of there being a sufficiency of assets. This determination proceeds on the reason of courts of equity being competent to render more substantial justice to the parties, than courts of law.

Art. 23. *A complete System of Pleading*; comprehending the most approved Precedents and Forms of Practice; chiefly consisting of such as have never before been printed; with an Index to the principal Work, incorporating and making it a Continuation of Townshend's (*Townsend's*) and Cornwall's Tables, to the present Time; as well as an Index of Reference to all the antient and modern Entries extant. By John Wentworth, Esq. of the Inner-Temple, Barrister at Law. 10 vols. Royal 8vo. 6l. Boards. Robinsons. 1797—1799.

The first volume of this extensive production was announced in our 22d vol. N. S. and we mentioned in that article that Mr. *Townsend* (not Townshend) published his tables in the year 1667; and that, in the year 1705, Mr. Cornwall's Continuation appeared. The present work professes to be not only a continuation of the two former compilations, but also to incorporate the contents of these volumes. Was such a measure necessary?

Judgment in selection; and accuracy in transcribing, are the only qualities that can be expected in a production of this nature; which must be considered merely in the light of a collection of precedents, and an index to printed forms. Neither of these qualities appears in any eminent degree to belong to Mr. Wentworth; for we perceive precedents accumulated with slight variations; and the mistakes discoverable in the work are so numerous, that the pleader must exercise his caution when he applies to these volumes for assistance.

Art. 24. *Practical Forms*; being chiefly designed as an Appendix to the Practice of the Court of King's-Bench in Personal Actions, by William Tidd, Esq. of the Inner-Temple. 8vo. pp. 600. 9s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

We have frequently noticed Mr. Tidd's Book of Practice in terms of commendation; and our praise has been sanctioned by the approbation of that court, the proceedings of which it professed to illustrate. This new collection, which is intended principally as an appendix to the author's former production, contains a great variety of practical forms, taken from different printed books, as well as from the author's own MSS. These forms are placed in the volume before us in the order in which they occur in the course of a suit, so as to exhibit the general progress of the proceedings, and the particular varieties attending them. The work furnishes an additional proof of the judgment and information of the writer, and incontestably shews that the greatest attention has been paid to method and arrangement: circumstances not to be disregarded in a compilation of this nature.

POLITICAL, &c.

Art. 25. *Thoughts on Government*, with a short View of the comparative Political Freedom enjoyed in France, America, Britain, &c. dedicated to The Sovereign People. By George Watson, Esq. 8vo. 13. 6d. Chapple. 1799.

The irony of the dedication indicated to us the complexion of this pamphlet; which strongly reprobates all republican and democratic governments, as the most destructive of liberty. 'At first sight, (says Mr. Watson,) a republican form of government seems the least exceptionable; but upon an analyzation of its principles, and a knowledge of its effects, it may, perhaps, be pronounced the most so, because the people are slaves to the worst of all tyrants—themselves.'

He is not more partial to the Aristocratical form. 'Degrading as is monarchy, it is still preferable to the yoke of a proud factious nobility.'

'If I am asked under which of the three forms of unmixed government I should choose to live, I would answer without hesitation, "under a Monarchy." There, it is true, I should be the slave of a despot, and my life would be subject to his will; but I should not be the sport of riot and faction.'

It is allowed that no human government can be perfect: but that constitution which most discourages vice, and most promotes the practice of virtue, is the nearest to perfection. The present French constitution

constitution does not appear to be of this kind; and yet, according to Mr. W.'s account of the best political system, we may be allowed to wonder at hearing him say 'that it would be happy for France could she regain her old form of government, however exceptionable.' If she must change, why change from one extreme to the other? Why not adopt the limited monarchy of Great Britain; which is pronounced to be more perfect, and likely to endure longer, than any other constitution in the world?

Of the British constitution, the author exhibits a very engaging picture; and so far from his having any fears from the influence of the Crown, his apprehensions arise from the opposite quarter. 'Strange as it may appear to some, I will boldly assert my belief, that, if not properly restrained, the superior influence of the people will swallow up the power of the Crown.'

We leave Mr. W. in the full and uninterrupted enjoyment of this part of his political creed; and we will not ask for the facts on which he builds his opinion.

Art. 26. *A Word for the Poor: or general Thoughts, candidly submitted to the good Sense, Discernment, and particular Consideration of the British Public, on the late scanty Harvest, and the dreary Prospect of a hard Winter.* Interspersed, are a few homely, but wholesome, Hints (if rightly taken) to all deep Speculators and greedy Monopolists, whether Farmers or Cornfactors, Usurious Contractors, Forestallers, Engrossers, or Regraters. With a Glance at Levellers, and a parting Word of Admonition to the Poor. By a true Lover of his Country. 8vo. 1s. Hurst. 1799.

Some writers are like bad coachmen; they cannot conduct a subject along the road of discussion, without running foul of every idea with which they happen to meet. From the title, we conceived that the author of the pamphlet before us was of this number: but we were deceived; and he has disappointed us in another way. He has induced us to expect more than we found. He has painted more on his board than his shop furnishes. Instead of *General Thoughts, Hints, Glances, and Parting Words*, the pamphlet is little more than a sermonic declamation on the words "he that withholdeth corn, the people shall curse him."

These words are repeated as often as a fanatical preacher repeats his text in the course of an extemporaneous address; and though it is said that a good thing cannot be told too often, we are of opinion that a good thing may be *printed* too often, when paper, like corn, is become a very scarce and dear article.

The intention of the writer is certainly benevolent: but we fear that such general hints as those which he throws out are not calculated to do much good.

Art. 27. *Speech of the Earl of Glandore in the House of Lords of Ireland, on Friday February 13, 1789, upon a Motion to agree with the Commons in an Address to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, to take upon him the Regency of that Kingdom, during the Incapacity of the King.* 8vo. pp. 13. Dublin. 1799.

This speech was first printed in 1792, and has been now re-printed in Dublin, as the subject was thought to be connected with the great question of union depending in Ireland. It asserts that Ireland is a part or parcel of the dominions of the Imperial Crown of England, and that the relation of that country to England differs essentially from the relation in which Scotland stood to England before the union. The noble and patriotic orator contends that Ireland holds its sovereignty of the *Crown* of England, and not of the *person of the King*; and therefore that the Irish legislature could not adopt the measure proposed, without departing from the principles of the constitution,

E D U C A T I O N .

Art. 28. *Columbus*; or, The Discovery of America: as related by a Father to his Children, and designed for the Instruction of Youth.

Translated from the German of J. H. Campe, by Elizabeth Helme. 12mo. 2 Vols. in one. 3s. 6d. Boards. Low, 1799.

This history of the Discovery of America is intended as the first part of a collection of voyages, which the author has undertaken to prepare for the instruction of youth; and of which some other parts have since been published. It is unnecessary to bestow encomiums on a design so praise-worthy; and which is so much the more useful, as, in the greater part of the accounts published of voyages performed by the most celebrated of the early discoverers, actions are represented with that species of deceitful colouring which is the most liable to create impressions subversive of every principle of humanity and justice. M. Campe has given his relation in the form of dialogues, as being convenient for the purposes of occasional explanations, and of introducing instruction on subjects of geography, history, &c.

History appears best calculated to convey instruction, when it consists of truth with sound comment, delivered in language the most explicit. Such history must prove the best antidote against the poison which has been infused into the morals and dispositions of mankind, by those innumerable relations which have attached renown to extraordinary, more than to good, actions. Principles similar to those which we have commended, the author has kept in view in drawing up his history of the Discovery of America: but his hand has been restrained by an opinion that 'it is necessary by degrees to unveil the truth, and with infinite precaution to discover to pupils, as they advance in years, the caprice and injustice of men; lest, finding themselves deceived in the flattering picture they had drawn, from imagining a society of angels they fall into the opposite extreme, and take their fellow-creatures for so many fiends!'—To these considerations, it is probably to be attributed that the author has in a few instances shewn too great a solicitude to preserve some characters from reproach; not by disguising facts, but, as the translator expresses it, in giving the full merit to the adventurers for their courage, perseverance, &c. and retracing with a merciful hand the atrocious deeds which disgraced them. This gradation of development might, perhaps, with less danger of obscuring the truth, be effected by care in the selection of subjects for instruction, than
by

by any exclusive adaptations. We are of opinion that the voyages of Columbus may be pronounced to be proper subjects of information, if justly represented, for pupils who are of an age sufficiently advanced to comprehend them.—Notwithstanding the restraint under which M. Campe seems to have laid himself, his relation appears better calculated to inculcate good principles, than any other edition of the same voyages that has been published.

The following extract, taken from the account of the conquest of Hispaniola, will serve as a specimen of his manner:

The Father (in continuation)—“The two armies were already in sight of each other, and the dreadful moment approached which was to decide upon the life [lives] of the Spaniards and the liberty of the Indians. On one side, a hundred thousand Indians appeared armed with clubs, wooden scimitars, pikes, and arrows. On the other, two hundred foot and twenty European horse were supported by a small body of Indians under the command of Guakanahari; but what this handful of Europeans wanted in number was added in military discipline, weapons, horses, and—shall I speak it—even in dogs!”

Charlotte. “Dogs!”

The Father. “Yes, my child. They had brought a number of mastiffs to let loose upon the poor naked Indians, in the same manner as is usual against wild boars and beasts of prey.”

Charlotte. “Oh, shameful! This was not attacking them like men.”

The Father. “The danger therefore you see was nearly equal on both sides, and consequently the issue of the battle easy to foresee. Columbus made choice of night for the horrid scene he was preparing; hoping that darkness would increase the terror with which the Indians would necessarily be seized on an unexpected attack. Night therefore being come, and his little army divided between Bartholomew, the Cacique Guakanahari, and himself, he fell upon the Indians at the moment they least expected an attack. The shouts and fury of the assailants, the noise of the fire-arms, the barking of the dogs, struck the Indians with such consternation and terror, that after a slight resistance they fled in disorder and dismay.—Thus were these inoffensive people constrained to bend beneath the yoke of European slavery!”

In this dialogue, the motives for fighting are not on both sides justly represented. The Spaniards fought not for their lives: they might probably have negotiated: retreat must have been in their power; and this, justice prescribed: but they were actuated by very different motives. The Indians, indeed, fought for their liberty; the Spaniards, for plunder and dominion.—In the sequel, the father observes: ‘Hitherto we have seen Columbus act only in such a manner as to inspire our admiration and conciliate our friendship; but still he was a man. Prepare, therefore, to behold him in his turn degenerate, and from thence learn that it is necessary for man, how strong soever may be his propensities to virtue, to keep strict guard on his heart and actions.’—

M. Campe has noticed the sources whence he drew his materials. As he proceeds, perhaps, he could not do better than by consulting the

the original accounts for *facts*, and *describing* them from such considerations as shall be suggested by his own sense of justice.

The language of the translation is plain, and easy of comprehension: but we find some inaccuracies in the nautical and geographical parts of the narrative, which a closer attention to the generally received accounts would have prevented.

POETIC and DRAMATIC.

Art. 29. *The Turnpike Gate*; A Musical Entertainment in Two Acts; now performing with universal Applause, at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By T. Knight. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1799.

Musical farces are not expected to stand the test of dramatic criticism. The plot and dialogue are considered as little more than pegs on which to hang the songs and music; and if they answer this purpose, the chief end is accomplished. *The Turnpike Gate*, in this respect, may please in the representation. The songs have merit; and there is one character, of a Village *Scrub* or man of all work, which is conceived with some degree of originality and humour, under the name of *Crack*. Sir Edward allows this *Crack* to drive his curicle in order to exercise the horses; they run away with him and a sailor whom he takes with him, and break the carriage to pieces; the following is the dialogue with the groom after the accident:

‘ *Groom*. Why, that trunk, you, and the sailor, for a light carriage, were a little too weighty, I think, friend.

‘ *Crack*. Not weighty enough, friend, or your trotting nags would not have galloped so fast; but it seems your and your horses wits jump.

‘ *Groom*. How so?

‘ *Crack*. Why, your horses, like you, voted us too weighty, and so unloaded us.

‘ *Groom*. Unloaded you!

‘ *Crack*. Yes; if you won’t believe me, ask your master’s great coat—(*gives it*)—Brush it, dy’e hear, it has been rubb’d already.

‘ *Groom*. And hav’n’t you brought the black horse back?

‘ *Crack*. Why, how you talk! the black horse would not bring us back.

‘ *Groom*. And where is he?

‘ *Crack*. He’s gone.

‘ *Groom*. Gone! Where?

‘ *Crack*. He did not tell me where he was going; I was not in his confidence; when you catch him, teach him better manners.

‘ *Groom*. Dam’me, if ever I heard the like before!—(*amazed*.)

‘ *Crack*. No, nor saw the like *behind*! He winc’d like a devil! the worst bred horse I ever saw.

‘ *Groom*. What do you talk of? Not a better bred horse in the kingdom—(*with a knowing slang manner*).

‘ *Crack*. Then the manners of horses are not more refined than their masters; he kick’d up, as much as to say, that for you—(*kicks up*).

‘ *Groom*.

' *Groom.* Dam'me, but you seem to have made a very nice job of it.

' *Crack.* If you flatter at hearing *half*, what will you say when you know the *whole*? The carriage, you see——

' *Groom.* Is that run away too?

' *Crack.* No; but it might, if I hadn't taken good care of it.

' *Groom.* By driving over posts, I suppose?

' *Crack.* No; by driving *against* posts—(Oh! you'll find me correct)—by which I took off one wheel, and broke the other.

' *Groom.* And haven't you brought it with you?

' *Crack.* Without wheels! how could I?—'twould have broke my back.

' *Groom.* I wish you mayn't get your head broke, that's all!

' *Crack.* So far from that, I expect to be complimented for my judgment; for if I had not, like a skilful whip, whipped off the wheels, I might have lost the carriage and all its valuable contents; by being expert, I have saved both.

' *Groom.* Well, friend, you seem very merry under misfortune, and I wish you luck; It was Sir Edward's own doing, he can't blame me. [Exit.

' *Crack.* If he should, I'll make a neat defence for the sake of your nice feeling: dam'nd hard, if at a battle of brains, I could not outgossip a grumbling groom. Whenever I'm puzzled, I always hum folk: humming's all the fashion.

‘ SONG—CRACK.

‘ With a merry tale
Serjeants beat the drum;
Noddles full of ale,
Village lads they *hum*;
Soldiers out go all,
Famous get in story;
If they chance to fall,
Don't they sleep in glory!

Towdy rowdy dow, &c.

II.

‘ Lawyers try, when fee'd,
Juries to make pliant,
If they can't succeed,
Then they *hum* their client;
To perfection come,
Humming all the trade is,
Ladies, lovers *hum*,
Lovers *hum* the ladies.

Towdy rowdy dow, &c.

III.

‘ Han't Britannia's sons
Often *hum*'d Mounseer?
Han't they *hum*'d the Dons?—
Let their fleets appear—

Strike

Strike they must tho' loth,
 (Ships with dollars cramm'd,)
 If they're not *humu'd* both,
 Then will I be d——

'Towdy rowdy dow, &c.'

Art. 30. *Poems*, by Robert Farren Cheetham. 4to. 2s. 6d.
 Printed at Stockport.

This writer expresses himself much displeased with us for having objected to the term *whetstone*, in one of his former poems, as rather bordering on vulgarity. As we have already assigned our reasons for this opinion, we are not inclined to enter into farther dispute on the subject, and shall therefore pass over the flippant remarks which the author makes in his preface, without any animadversion.

Of the present collection, we shall commence our account by making the following extract, part of an

‘ Ode spoken at Manchester school.

‘ Let Latian Muses, and the sister train,
 That fill'd great Homer's mind with heavenly fire,
 That taught the Theban Eagle's towering strain
 To warm the soul and deeds of fame inspire;
 Let these, in native charms array'd,
 Depict the conquering Cæsar's noble mind,
 In war supremely brave, supremely kind,
 And show the woes of Rome, that mad ambition made:
 Be their's the task, adorn'd with Græcian vest,
 The fateful wrath of Peleus' son to sing,
 To paint the gallant Hector's dauntless breast,
 And Helen's faithless charms of wars and woes the spring:
 But let the British Muse, in native verse,
 The deeds of Britain's sons with conscious pride rehearse.
 Nor look we to the times of yore,
 When Cressy's field was drench'd with gore,
 When *numbers numberless* bestrew'd the plain,
 That groan'd beneath the weight of warriors slain;
 When sable Edward, with his valiant few,
 To hunger and fatigue a prey,
 Thro' all the ranks with lightning's swiftness flew,
 And reap'd the glorious harvest of the day:
 Majestic on his helmet's crested pride,
 Sat gorgeous Valour plumed, with Victory at his side.
 How dubious is the fate of war,
 Which smiles not always on the strong!
 To souls, that greatly think, and nobly dare,
 The never-fading palm and deathless meed belong.’

Though Mr. C. may pronounce that we are ill-qualified to judge of poetry, perhaps he will allow us to remark, as grammarians, that the expression *numbers numberless* is not far removed from nonsense; and, as he values himself on his classical education, he might have known that limitation is of the essence of *number*, and in that respect only it differs from *multitude*.

We

We shall make one extract more, lest the author should suppose that, from pique or resentment, we were desirous of concealing his merit from the world.

‘ Sonnet to Sapphira.

‘ Oft as the feather’d choirs, with descant shrill,
Wake from its curtain’d sleep the infant day ;
Oft as the Sun emits his fiercest ray,
Oft as he sinks behind the distant hill ;
So oft my thoughts revert, with sweetest pain,
To thee, Sapphira, day-spring of my soul ;
Nor would I banish tempered grief’s control,
For all the wealth that earth and seas contain.
Whene’er my solitary footsteps roam,
To thee my mind, unfettered, swiftly flees,
A pardon’d truant from its native home ;
Frequent I waft a kiss into the air,
And bid the Genius of the southern breeze
The balmy freightage to Sapphira bear.’

We have seen nothing in this collection to induce us to retract the judgment which we formerly passed on Mr. C’s poetical talents. We know not that we ever called in question the liveliness of his imagination : but we cannot allow that he possesses, in a great degree, either judgment or taste.

Art. 31. *An Essay on the Passions*: with other Poems. By A. Donoghue. 8vo. pp. 140. Printed at Shrewsbury for Owen, Welshpool : London, Champante and Whitrow. 1799.

We know not what the personal merit or misfortunes of this young author may be : but, if he be a native or an inhabitant of Welshpool, the place of publication, he must have possessed some means of acquiring favour with which we are unacquainted ; as the list of his subscribers seems to have been chiefly furnished from that town.

We should be sorry to check rising genius, or to diminish the zeal of the author’s friends, by severity of censure. Yet our duty to the public, and indeed to ourselves, will not allow us to recommend this pamphlet to readers of nice discernment and taste. The lines are often rough, and the ideas distorted by awkward struggles at metaphor and poetical ornament ; the rhymes are frequently unwarrantable, and the English is not always grammatical :—but, by the account which Mr. D. gives of his circumstances, we may suppose that the publication was precipitated by the pressure of penury, before sufficient reading and study had formed his taste for composition, or he had leisure for revising and polishing his pieces.

We do not recollect, in all our laborious reading, to have met with—keen sensations shooting along the heart—the *wheels* of feeling—enchantment’s swell—attune the glow—Favonius warbles—chase (for seek) happiness—&c. These and many more inaccuracies appear in the initial poem ; and yet, here and there, we have something like poetry that is nearly correct. The description of pity seems to merit praise unmixed with blame. After having de-

lucated

lineated the different species of insanity lodged in the cells of Bedlam, the author exclaims :

• But turn from scenes like these, my frightened Muse !
 To Pity's empire, and her lovelier views.
 How wide, how wonderful th' attractive ties,
 That link the heart in secret sympathies !
 As round the changeful scenes of life appear,
 We love, we hate, we weep, we hope, we fear.
 Nor yet for self the keenest pangs we feel,
 For other's woes, more genial tears will steal.
 Thou tender martyr of condolence ! tell,
 How strong the tides that social bosoms swell !
 Did e'er thy soul so true to nature's tone,
 So deeply weep for sorrows of thine own ?
 Nor e'en will sympathetic grief suffice ;
 Imagin'd pains, fictitious woes will rise.
 How often at Imagination's call,
 Will sighs ascend, and ready torrents fall ?
 Observe the maid as o'er the false romance
 She bends, and flutters in delirious trance :
 Her throbbing breast concordant measures keeps,
 Now laughs with rapture, now with anguish weeps,
 See how each feeling, on her face pourtray'd,
 Absorbs the reader, and o'ercomes the maid.'

As this is the longest and most important poem in the collection, we shall confine our criticisms to its defects. The author does not know, perhaps, that there are 16 unfair rhymes in this piece :—nor that his partiality, or convenience, has terminated six lines with the word *vein* ; the rhyme to four of which is *strain*. Typographical errors, of which several occur in the works of authors long used to the press, we can easily pardon when they escape the notice of inexperience ; and, approaching the end of this poem, we must own that the complaints of penury which escape this young bard, and his pathetic address to “the society lately established for the relief of indigent genius,” soften our rigour ; and make us hope, as sparks of genius are discoverable in these early essays, that his case will be taken into consideration by this liberal and laudable institution :

• Which freely gives, yet never sounds the deed
 Nor claims a plaudit for compassion's meed.
 Extatic hope ! no more shall genius strive,
 With want calamitous, nor fear to live ;
 No bard despondent break the lyric wire,
 Nor future Chattertons for want expire ;
 No ill-starr'd youth be doom'd to bloom in vain ;
 No Otway raise the unrewarded strain.'

Among the subsequent pieces, amounting to more than twenty, the description of *Powis Castle and its Environs* is perhaps the best ; and among descriptive and encomiastic poems, it deserves an honourable niche.

Art. 32. *Affectation*; or the Close of the Eighteenth Century: A Satire, in Dialogue. By Gratiano Park. Part the First. 4to. 1s. Lec. 1799.

Stulta est clementia—peritura parcere charta. Let not the satirist regard the present scarcity of linen rags, and the consequent dearness of paper; and as for the critics, he needs not to be alarmed at them. According to this modern Juvenal, their approbation is rather to be deprecated than courted, since *to please the critics is the loss of fame*. In course he has not been solicitous of travelling in this "Road to Ruin;" and indeed he has taken care to prevent the murder of his fame by our unqualified commendation. Yet we must do him justice, however it may put him in a passion, and lead him to consider himself as an undone poet:—but Mr. Park, perhaps, may be tintured a little with the vice against which he points his satire, when he pretends to regard critical praise as dangerous; and should we be right in our conjecture, it may furnish him with a hint for his second part. Moreover, we advise him to recollect that a satirist may be satirized; and that, by the use of improper epithets, he may excite a smile against himself. How can a man be *modest*, who deals in *padding quackery*?—Mr. P. may improve as he proceeds, since he is not without poetic energy; as the following satirical lines on Pizarro will shew:

'Lo! Brinsley, of the stage forgetful long,
Now turns imperial KOTZEBUE to song!
With lacker, leather, trumpet, musket, gun,
Altar and phosphor, lion and full sun;
Lumb'ring he loads the dull inertive mass,
Nor brightens into gold the sterling brass:
Incongruous scenes, show, song, and storm proceed,
Men roar, and women rant, and chieftains bleed:
A base deserter from his country's side,
Reforms man's rudeness, and is Nature's pride;
A hero, whom his monarch's safety arms,
Yet guided only by a woman's charms,
Pines, droops, *surrenders*, if his mistress scold;
Tho' brave, defenceless; and, tho' raging, cold;
A harlot, fierce, intolerant, and vain,
Pours from her stormy breast mild Virtue's strain;
You'd swear, her truths so moral, so divine,
'Tis David's son, or else some concubine,
Has stol'n his proverbs, and gives line for line.'

'*You'd swear*' is a vulgarity, and the passage would have been better had the whole triplet been omitted, 'Bid AFFECTATION hail,' in p. 13. is not, surely, an order to Affectation to call somebody;—the author must intend that the muse should hail Affectation.

Art. 33. *Management*: A Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent Garden. By Frederic Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees.

Some allowance, we confess, must be made to the dramatist in the construction and conduct of his fable: but he ought to exercise a little moderation in drawing on our belief. In painting "the manners living as they rise," in laughing at fashionable follies, and in exposing prevailing vices, high colouring may be necessary, and ought not to be condemned; yet, after every allowance which we make to the play-wright, we cannot tolerate violent offences against nature and credibility. We grant Mr. Reynolds the merit of having made some good strokes at the fashionable world: but on his play, as a whole, we cannot bestow any great commendation. As he seems to understand the art of *keeping things alive* on the boards, it may go off with tolerable effect: but the mere jumble of incidents, and the collision of unnatural characters, producing bustle and embarrassment, working at cross-purposes, and saying and doing what was really never said and done by persons in their supposed circumstances, cannot constitute a good play. In the present drama, there is too much of this,—as in some of Mr. R.'s former productions.

Some of our men of fashion may perhaps be satirized in the person of Lavish; an idea of whose character will be furnished by the following short scene:

Enter LAVISH.

Lavish. Oh! if I go on in this close saving way only six months longer, I shall be able to return to town and dash like the best of them:—never was such a hand at buying bargains.—Frank, come here, you rogue:—just now, at Squire Brozier's sale, what do you think I gave for a curricule?—only forty pounds!—there, there's economy for you.

Frank. Economy!—begging your pardon, Sir,—I see no economy in buying what you don't want.

Lavish. How?—would you let a bargain slip through your fingers, you extravagant rascal?

Frank. No—but you've no horses, Sir; and a curricule's useless——

Lavish. That's what I said: says I, a curricule is useless without horses,—so I bought a pair directly.

Frank. Bought a pair?

Lavish. Ay, gave a hundred and twenty pounds for them—to be sure it's money; but one's own carriage saves posting and drivers: in short, the worst come to the worst, 'tis but a hundred and fifty pounds, and I'll save it a thousand ways.—Who are you, Sir? (*to a Workman.*)

Workman. I have finish'd that job, all but fixing up the statue, Sir; and now I come about the billiard-room:—but, to speak honestly, it is not worth repairing.

Lavish. So I thought; I thought it wasn't worth repairing.

Workman. No, Sir; and a new room will not cost above three hundred pounds:—but then to be sure it will be elegant and lasting.

Lavish. So it will, and the first expence is the least; so up with the new room.—(*Workman exit.*)—And now to finish my vindication to Juliana—(*Sits at the table and writes.*):—"Your late mother

mother was not only my relation, but my friend and benefactress; and on Sir Hervey's one day reprobating her conduct with unusual asperity, gratitude prompted me to defend it perhaps more warmly than I ought, and a duel was the result."—(*Knocking at the door.*)—See who's there.—(*FRANK exit.*)—But what signifies writing? while she's immured in her present den, I haven't a chance of success.—Mrs. Dazzle formerly seduced me into some gallantries, and a disappointed widow is the devil.'

The epilogue, written by Mr. Colman, and spoken by Fawcett in the character of *Mist*, the manager of a country play-house, could not fail of being well received.

Art. 34. *The East Indian*; a Comedy. Translated from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue. By A. Thomson, Author of *Whist*, &c. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees. 1799.

This comedy appears in a less exceptionable form, in the present publication, than in the "German Miscellany," which gave it to the world several years ago, under the title of 'Indians in England.' Still, however, it partakes too much of the defects of the Teutonic Drama,

Manserunt, bodieque manent vestigia ruris.

For some of its errors, however, our own stage may be accountable; since the character of *Gurli*, the child of nature in this piece, bears a resemblance too close to be accidental, to a similar personage in a farce written by Kelly: that character was taken from Marmontel's *Coralie*, and here, heaven help us! has the imitative shadow risen again before us. Where will this literary traffic terminate? Should Mr. Kotzebue continue to engross the public favour, by re-writing the works of our own dramatists, he has still an ample career before him. Congreve, Dryden, Cibber, Farquhar, and many others, remain to be put to the torture. All the French writers, too, are still in reserve, from

"The frippery of crucified Moliere,"

to the lightest summer-fly of the Parisian theatres. Never surely was the taste of the British Public seen at so low an ebb, as in their condescension to admire a foreigner for his plagiarisms from very inferior writers of this country. That our manners are ill represented by Kotzebue is a fault not to be severely charged on a stranger: but that the distorted resemblance should be applauded among ourselves, and transferred to our own canvas, is certainly an impeachment of the national discernment. Can we discover, for example, in the following passage, either delicacy or elevation of sentiment? though it be intended to convey the feelings of a man of worth and honour, an English Baronet, an injured husband, and an insulted father!

'*Liddy.* Unhappy party-spirit, in so small a family.

'*Sir John.* Who is to blame? Is it not your mother? Who torments me from breakfast time to the hour of supper? Who is it, that throws my unmerited bankruptcy in my teeth, with every scanty morsel that I eat? Who despises my good burgher's blood, and talks so big of her German ancestors? Who is it that suffers me to starve? Who talks our tenants out of their money, and squanders

so idly the slender rents which the possession of these houses has still left me? Did you not hear how I petitioned last night for a pipe of tobacco, and a pot of porter. Samuel carried your mother to the playhouse; and I was obliged to send my appetite to sleep.'

Were there any vigour of invention displayed in the other characters, even a passage like this might be excused: but, as Mr. Kotzebue has represented his worthy baronet as a driveller, and addicted to low habits, so he has made his copy of the amiable ingenuousness of Coraly, and of Kelly's heroine, degenerate into a changeling. The only feeling distinctly expressed by the Frow Gurli is of too gross a nature to be tolerated on our theatre. We might have expected that some part of the offensive passages would have been retrenched by the translator: but he appears to be inattentive even to the appropriate meaning of phrases in our own language. He makes his fair Indian complain, for example, (p. 31.) that she could not help *plucking a rose* in the park. Very similar to this was the exclamation of John Quarles, son of the renowned author of the *Emblems*, in one of his elegies:

" I cannot hold: the laws of nature break
The laws of reason, and my cisterns leak."

The unlucky demand for porter and tobacco comes upon us again, in the second act, and, strange to tell! wins the heart of the Nabob of Mysore.

' *Kaberdar. (Aside.)* This is noble of the girl, that she is not ashamed to work for her daily bread! this is noble!

' *Tom.* I never saw so much money at once in my life. Farewel, noble Sir. May God reward you.

' *Kaberdar.* Whither art thou going?

' *Tom.* Out.

' *Kaberdar.* But the money!

' *Tom.* I have it in my pocket.

' *Kaberdar.* And will you not carry it to Miss Liddy?

' *Tom.* No, noble Sir. Miss Liddy commanded me to bring a pound of tobacco from neighbour Williams, and a pot of porter from the nearest tavern.

' *Kaberdar.* What! does Miss Liddy smoke?

' *Tom.* Lord! no Sir, I suppose it is for her father. The poor old man wishes sometimes to indulge himself a little; but his wife and son will not give him any thing.

' *Kaberdar. (Aside.)* Excellent girl! excellent girl! (*to Tom*) Go now; go. (*exit Tom*) This is decisive. Such a heart must command happiness: were she even not beautiful, filial love would lend her celestial charms. At present she is poor; and yet she grudges not to labour five whole nights for her father. I am determined.'

Et sic infinitum. Thus does the Thespian waggon rumble forwards, till the fatigued passenger arrives at the joyful conclusion. Courteous reader! if ever thou hast known the agony and *cordolium* of travelling five tedious stages, through sloughs and quagmires, with the dullest and most vulgar personages who ever were stuffed

as agreeable companions into a stage-coach or post-chaise, then mayest thou form an adequate idea of our sufferings during the perusal of this most sentimental performance.

Art. 35. *Poems*, written by E. S. J. 12mo. pp. 47. 1s. 6d. Jordan.

Poor Chatterton was soon detected when he attempted to impose his poems on the public as the works of Rowley, a Monk of the 15th century, because they were superior to any thing produced in the period to which he referred them: but, had the writer of the rhymes before us chosen to have published them as from a MS. found in an old trunk belonging formerly to Thomas Sternhold or John Hopkins, it would not have been easy, from internal evidence, to have detected the forgery. *Ek. gr.*

‘ All day I bade in the thick wood
Till night should succour me;
And panted for to see my love
Again impatiently.’—

‘ My fearful soul, thou ’bodest ill,
She cry’d, all in dismay;
Were Edwin, Edwin, but come back
That’s been so long away.’—

‘ She told it too with many a look
Of innocence sincere;
That Goval taught of Jesus’ death
For mankind sinning here.’

Shades of Sternhold and Hopkins! pardon us! We ought to have said that these verses were stolen from the Bellman’s Christmas gift to his good masters and mistresses.

Art. 36. *The Writing Desk*; or Youth in Danger. A Play in Four Acts. Literally translated from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons. 1799.

The German dramatic loom; though celebrated for weaving a tissue of improbabilities and often of immoralities, continues to find importers and admirers of its productions. Like our Old Tapestry, it entertains, not so much from the accuracy of the drawing and perspective, as from its striking effect and the multitude of figures crowded together upon it. The play, of which a translation is before us, is from a celebrated manufacturer, who cannot be denied the merit of being very industrious. His *Writing-Desk* is calculated to excite interest, to keep up attention, and has withal no indifferent moral attached to it: but the incidents are at strife with truth. The circumstance which gives name to the piece is not at all credible, any more than that which determines the catastrophe,—the marriage: but the readers and frequenters of dramatic performances are not disposed to be offended at little improprieties and incongruities, provided that they are surprised, that a good sentiment or two is thrown in, and that the whole goes off tolerably well.

The translation is so *literal*, as to be far removed from good English style.

Art. 37. *The Wise Man of the East.* A Play, in Five Acts, performing at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. From the German of Kotzebue. By Mrs. Inchbald. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons; 1799.

This drama is an alteration from "The Writing Desk" noticed in the preceding article. The characters are newly named, and some of the incidents are considerably varied: but, though this is done for the purpose of stage effect, we do not think that it improves the play in the closet. *Claransforth* is a less amiable man than *Ditthelm*, his prototype; and his intended seduction of Ellen does not interest us so much in his favour as the pure passion of the young German Banker, *Ditthelm*, for the amiable and noble-minded *Sophia*. The substitution of the Quaker family for Madame Luppnitz and Emily is no improvement of the piece, as they form a clumsy picture. That *Ava Thoana* should, at the end of the drama, prove to be the father of *Claransforth*, who was supposed to have been destroyed, is one of those improbable discoveries in which English audiences seem to take much delight; as if they thought that every play, like the marriage service, should end with "amazement:"—but these tricks, intended to excite strong emotions of surprize, will not on reflection be approved by any wise man, either of the *East* or the *West*.

The moral of Mrs. Inchbald's alteration is not so good as that of the German play. A man who attempts the seduction of a beautiful and virtuous fair one is not entitled to the honour of her hand, nor should the stage inculcate so pernicious a lesson.

Art. 38. *The Shade of Alexander Pope on the Banks of the Thames.* A Satirical Poem. With Notes. Occasioned chiefly, but not wholly, by the residence of Henry Grattan, Ex-Representative in Parliament for the City of Dublin, at Twickenham, in November, 1798. By the Author of the Pursuits of Literature. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Becket. 1799.

The celebrated author of the *Pursuits of Literature* makes the indignant shade of Pope give a very discourteous and inhospitable reception to the famous Ex-Patriot of Ireland, on his late visit to a temporary residence in the pleasant purlieus of "*Twit'nam*." Hear our redoubted Satirist's reasons for his choice of such a subject:

'This poem was chiefly occasioned by the perusal of Dr. Patrick Duigenan's Answer to the Address of Mr. Grattan to his Fellow Citizens of Dublin. I considered the Address and the Answer with that attention, earnestness, and zeal which the importance of such a Cause, at this present hour, requires and demands. I considered it in this manner, because whatever affects Ireland, *must* affect the existence and safety of Great Britain, and of all the dependencies, territories, and possessions annexed to the Crown.

'I think Dr. Duigenan might have adopted the very words of Cicero against Antony. That Orator requested indulgence and attention when he spoke of himself; but as to the enemy of his country, he exclaimed with confidence; "*Cum de illo loquor, faciam ut attente audiat.*" A more masterly, just, and irresistible piece of

of argument has seldom appeared; and if the eloquence suffers any abatement, it is from the admission of some expressions which might, and should, have been avoided. But a mind intent on great and national matters, urgent in their nature and allowing of no delay, cannot always attend to the minuter elegancies and graces of diction.

'In Dr. Duigenan's Answer, there is the vigour, the manliness, the courage, the impetuosity, the indignation, and the thunder of an orator, feeling for the wrongs of his country and the horrors of rebellion, against a Man, whose political conduct and character have ranked him among the domestic enemies of Ireland. Against a man, who appears to have imposed himself upon his credulous country, under the pretence of brilliant talents and rhetorical exertions. Against a man, who boasts that in the hour of distress, *he* EXTORTED from the timid and feeble Minister of the day, and from an improvident British Parliament, such *concessions*, as have been since proved to be inconvenient, and sometimes in direct opposition to the essential welfare of Ireland. Against a man, who received the most extravagant and disproportioned rewards for very equivocal services, and who has now fled to England from his own country, from that hue and cry of every loyal subject, which pursued him from the Castle, to the shop and to the cottage.

'I have nothing to do with Mr. Grattan; but in his publick capacity, as his actions, his writings, and his speeches have demonstrated and declared it to the world. He has signed with his own hand all the doctrines, which have been discussed, exposed, and confuted.

'In Mr. Grattan's Address we find, as I think, false facts, even of the day, false history, false reasoning, false premises, and false conclusions. There is inanity of sound, and shallowness of argument. We observe the glosses of the sophist, and all the purple patches in the rhetorician's cloak. It is such a tissue of the most unfounded assertions, rebellious doctrines, and treasonable sentiments, as have discovered, and proved to the loyal subjects of Great Britain and Ireland, WHO AND WHAT MR. GRATTAN is. But I refer to the caustick discussions of Dr. Duigenan, whose answer, I hope, will be read in this country; for it does not concern Ireland alone.'

As a specimen of the poem, we may quote the following lines from the exordium:

- 'What accents, murmur'd o'er this hallow'd tomb,
Break my repose, deep-sounding through the gloom?
Would mortal strains immortal spirits reach,
Or earthly wisdom truth celestial teach?
Ah! 'tis no holy calm that breathes around:
Some warning voice invites to yonder ground,
Where once with impulse bold, and manly fire,
I rous'd to notes of war my patriot lyre;
While Thames with every gale, or bland or strong,
Sigh'd through my groto, and diffus'd my song.
- 'Whence bursts that voice indignant on my ear?
To Britain ever faithful, ever dear,

E'en *now* my long-lov'd, grateful Country's cause,
 Her fam'd pre-eminence, her state, her laws;
 Can touch my temper of ethereal mould,
 Free as great Dryden, and as Milton bold.
 Sadly the scene I view, how chang'd, how lost!
 The statesman's refuge once, and poet's boast;
 I hear the raven's hoarse funereal cry,
 Since all, whom Ireland spares, to *Twitnam* * fly.
 "The polish'd Nestor of the classic shore,
 Mendip †, my green domain can guard no more;
 Lo, Cambridge ‡ droops, who once with tuneful tongue
 The gifts of science, and her wand'rings sung;
 With Him, whom Themis and the Muses court,
 The learned Warden of the *tatter'd* Fort §:
 For their best task my Sylphs are all unfit,
 While more than Gnomes along the meadows flit.
 No more my fabled phantoms haunt the plains,
 Where Moloch *now*, in right of Umbriel, reigns;
 His bands from their Hibernian Tophet pass,
 And clash the cymbal's visionary brass;
 Or round my groves, sublime on murky wing,
 Spells of revolt and revolution fling;
 And as they glide, unhallow'd vapours shed
 On that false Fugitive's inglorious head.
 ¶ Whence, and what art thou, GRATTAN? has the shock,
 And terror low'ring o'er the sable rock,
 Hurl'd thee astounded with tumultuous fears,
 From Ireland's mutter'd curse, from Ireland's tears?
 For thee no vustos ope, no friendly glade,
 No Muse invites thee to my sacred shade;
 No airs of peace from heav'n thy presence greet;
 Blasts from Avernus, in responsiveness meet,
 Hoarse through the leafless branches howl around,
 And birds of night return the obscener sound."

Mr. Grattan is thus furiously *pursued* and assailed by the offended *Shade* through the rest of this long poem, of seventy six pages, the

* * Mr. Pope generally spelt the word in this manner.'

† The Right Hon. Welbore Ellis, Baron Mendip, the present possessor of Mr. Pope's villa at Twitnam.'

‡ Richard Owen Cambridge, Esq. a distinguished veteran in literature and the polite arts. His poem entitled "*The Scribleriad*" is a work of great fancy, just composition, and poetical elegance; but above all, of mature judgment conspicuous throughout. It should be read as well for instruction, as amusement. The preface is entitled to much attention.'

§ George Hardinge, Esq. a man of genius and eloquence, M. P. one of the Welsh Judges. He is the present possessor of the villa called "*Rogman's Castle*" at Twitnam, by the banks of the Thames.'

copious "biting"* notes included. Who, among those who knew and admired Mr. G. (and who that knew his abilities did not admire them?) when he rode, all glorious, in the meridian blaze of his popularity, could ever have thought of his experiencing so total a reverse of fame and reputation!

Art. 39. *An Interview between the Spirit of Pope and the Shade that assumed his name.* 8vo. 6s. Hatchard. 1799.

If we believe that the first Shade of Pope was an impostor, who, as is here contended, had not the smallest right to assume the name and character of that justly admired poet, what shall prevent people from disputing the claim of the second questionable spectre, who "revisits thus the glimpses of the moon"—"making night hideous."

This rival Shade (No. 2.) very severely attacks his precursor; and it is difficult to say which of these angry spirits is the bitterest devil. Neither Mr. Grattan's name, nor the cause of Ireland, is introduced on this second occasion.

RELIGIOUS, &c.

Art. 40. *Christian Institutes*: being a Popular Illustration of the Creed, the Lord's Prayer, and the Ten Commandments: with the Sacraments of Baptism and the Lord's Supper. Designed for Families, Students, and others. By a Clergyman of the Church of England. Crown 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons, &c.

It may be the opinion of some, that, after Pearson's Exposition of the Creed, and Wheatly's admirable work on the common prayer, nothing farther could be written on these subjects which would be of any great advantage to mankind: but, although we are ready to allow these great men every merit which their warmest friends may ascribe to them, we think that it might be said that there are many sincere Christians who would wish to receive information on the chief articles of their faith; and who yet, from want of leisure, or perhaps of previous knowledge, might be ill qualified to consult the learned authors above-mentioned.—We cannot express our sentiments on this subject better than by transcribing the preface to the work before us:

It has often appeared to the editor of these pages, that a tract of this kind,—easy, short, and on a level with ordinary persual,—might be very serviceable in the present state of Christianity amongst us.—*Expositions*, indeed, and *Commentaries* upon the same subjects are not wanting: yet of these, some are much too learned for common use; others are too prolix; some are too expensive for the generality of purchasers; others are drawn up in the uninviting form of

* Bishop Hall styled some of his satirical compositions "*biting satires*."

† The new Shade pretends to have detected the old one, and has here exposed him as an *infernal*; and possibly it will be pretty generally agreed that they are—*par nobile fratrum*.

Query, were the *muses* or the *furies* concerned in this midnight disturbance of the peace of TWITNAM'S SACRED BOWERS?

Surely such licentious frisking, in a well ordered neighbourhood, ought to be the subject of some inquiry!

Dialogue, by Question and Answer: so that a convenience still seems to be looked for from a popular performance, suited to a greater variety of circumstances, situations, and purposes.

With a view, in some measure, to answer this design, an attempt has here been made to bring into a short compass the most material points of doctrine in our *Credo's*, &c. &c. by the aid of such approved Authorities and Commentaries, as the Editor conceived might safely be relied on;—that from hence a proper insight may be obtained into the Principles of the Christian Belief and Practice: and that the reader may proceed with greater advantage afterwards, to works of fuller illustration, and to *Expositions* of a superior rank and character.

Such is the object of the author, which he seems to have accomplished in a manner that entitles him to praise.—He preserves a tolerably just medium between the puritanical austerity of some writers, and the more dangerous lenity of others. We may therefore recommend him as a judicious and safe guide; his style also is easy and unaffected, and (which may be considered as of the first importance in a work of this sort) uncommonly clear and perspicuous.

Art. 41. *The Friendly Call of Truth and Reason to a New Species of Dissenters*. By the Rev. Edward Barry, M.D. 8vo. 2s. Elmely and Bremner.

When shall we cease to wonder at the singular fact that, though the Christian religion inculcates love and harmony with clearness and energy, there never was a religion of which the professors were so divided and sub-divided into sects and parties? One would suppose, from the mere external state of the Church, that their divine master had left them a pointed injunction to separate from each other whenever the slightest reason and pretext offered; and it should seem from Dr. Barry's account of *A New Species of Dissenters*, that there were some people at Reading, and elsewhere, who had a particular pleasure and satisfaction in acting on this maxim. No doubt, there are Dissenters whose religious sentiments are so much at variance with the doctrines of our established Church, that their separation from it may be conscientiously justified: but we think, with the writer of this *Friendly Call*, that the description of Dissenters which he addresses, (viz. those who object to neither the doctrines nor the Liturgy of the Church, but separate from it merely because the 17 Articles of Predestination and Election are not more enforced from the pulpit,) are not justified in the schism which they have created. Clergymen who have been fond of discussing these topics have been guilty of the greatest extravagances; and their absurdities will be a proper warning to judicious preachers to avoid, as much as they can, those discussions in which they can "find no end, in wandering mazes lost;" and to confine themselves, for the most part at least, to those practical doctrines which come home to "men's business and bosoms." There are certainly some things in the Christian system which are hard to be understood: but about these we ought rather to agree to differ, than insist on harmony of sentiment.

At all events, separation from Christian communion is an evil attended with such serious consequences, that no man should allow

himself in it without the most calm and dispassionate self-examination. If the Reading New Dissenters cannot perfectly satisfy themselves in a court of conscience thus held, we advise them to listen to Dr. B.; who exhorts them 'to return to the venerable embraces of our well-organized church.'

Art. 42. *Sermons on various Subjects*, by John Bidlake, B. A. Chaplain to his Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence, and Master of the Grammar-school, Plymouth. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 351. 6s. Boards. Murray and Co. 1799.

Little remains for us to say respecting these discourses, after we have referred the present set of sermons to an account already given * of the former volume. In the preface, we are informed that the first of them was preached in the behalf of the relations of the killed or wounded in the sea fights under Lord Nelson and Sir J. B. Warren; and that Mr. B. was afterward requested to print it: as has been the case with other discourses in the collection. It is added that 'they were all delivered before mixed congregations of various ranks; and that it has been the author's endeavour to make them as generally useful as he could. He has studiously avoided every thing of a controversial nature, thinking the pulpit ill adapted for disputation, and esteeming life sufficiently discordant without that most anomalous and disgusting fury, *religious animosity*;—he therefore only laboured to inculcate the necessity of practical piety, and to enforce the indispensable duties of morality on the animating and steady principle of rational faith.'

The subjects of the sermons in this volume are—Providence; Hopes of Religion; Future Judgment; Corrupt Conversation; the Unjust Steward; the Widow's Son; Christmas Day; Drunkenness; History of Lazarus, *two sermons*; Good Works; Creation; a good Conscience; Perseverance; Character of Peter; Shortness of Human Expectations; Power of Religion.

Hearers and readers differ considerably in their taste and judgment respecting pulpit-oratory: but we apprehend that these discourses may be perused by Christians of any denomination with improvement. We have only to add that the style is generally correct and easy: but the phrase, (p. 32.) *interpredication of Christ*, may prove to some rather unintelligible.

Art. 43. *A Letter to Mrs. Hannab More* on some part of her late publication, entitled "Strictures on Female Education." To which is subjoined, A Discourse on Genesis, xv. 6. preached at Christ's Church, Bath. By the Rev. Charles Daubeney, LL. B. Minister of Christ's Church, Bath. 8vo. pp. 91. 2s. Hatchard.

Mrs. More has said that, "it is observable that the earlier parts of most of the Epistles abound in the doctrines of Christianity, while the latter chapters, which wind up the subject, exhibit all the duties which grow out of them as the *natural* and *necessary* productions of such a root;—that those who would make Christianity consist of doctrines only, dwell, for instance, on the first eleven chapters of the Epistle to the Romans, as containing *exclusively* the sum and substance of the

Gospel: while mere moralists, who wish to strip Christianity of her lofty and appropriate attributes, delight to dwell on the twelfth chapter, which is a table of duties as *exclusively* as if the preceding chapters made no part of scripture."

To this passage, Mrs. More owes the present address from Mr. Daubeny; who, though he agrees with that lady on the general subject of Christianity, objects to the distinction made by her between the first eleven chapters of the Epistle to the Romans and the twelfth, as not correct. He observes that 'the sixth chapter, one of the eleven supposed to contain *exclusively* the doctrinal part of the gospel, speaks so decidedly in favour of Christian practice, as a necessary appendage to Christian profession, that it must, at least, claim an exemption from that particular plan, by which you describe the apostolic instruction, as being generally distinguished.' This, no doubt, the lady will admit, and will observe that she had no thought of being taken in the very rigid sense which is put on her language by her reverend critic; some parts of whose strictures do not properly apply to her object in the use of the above quoted passage: since she is not debating the question whether the mere moralist can or cannot perform the duties inculcated in the twelfth chapter, but only pointing out the reason why those who consider Christianity as a mere system of duty prefer that chapter to the preceding eleven.

Perhaps the propriety of using the words *natural* and *necessary*, in the former part of the quotation, may be worth Mrs. M.'s consideration; for, as Mr. D. very judiciously observes,

'The connection between Christian practice and the motives to it is certainly *in one sense* inseparable. Nevertheless the distinction between Christian doctrines considered as the necessary ground-work for Christian duties; because Christian practice can stand on no other foundation; and between Christian duties, considered as the necessary consequence of Christian doctrine; appears to me to be a distinction of the simplest kind; and whenever, for want of such a distinction having been clearly made, the Christian is encouraged to live in an indolent profession of Christianity; the gross doctrine of Faith without works, and the more plausible one of Faith, considered as *necessarily* productive of them, will be found to differ only in the direct and indirect promotion of the same fatal effects.' P. 46.

This is more clearly explained in the following passage:

'Faith in Christ will certainly be productive of the fruits of Christianity, *when the professor has not been wanting to himself in the diligent and faithful use of the means that have been instituted for that purpose.* But it is no uncommon thing for ignorant Christians to expect the fruits of Divine Grace, without making use of the means of it; and this is downright enthusiasm.'

The Discourse subjoined to this letter, entitled "The Faith of Abraham a Pattern for Christian Imitation," was written to resist this enthusiasm; which, the author fears, (and with reason, we believe,) is creeping among the lower orders. Here, by a distinct review of the history, he shews that Abraham's faith was not speculative, but practical; and that the Christian professor must judge of his faith by his practice:—but we have no room for farther extract.

Art.

Art. 44. *An Apology for the Christian Sabbath*: in which the Arguments for it are stated, the Objections against it answered, and the proper manner of spending it enforced. Intended as a Defence of "A Practical View, &c. by W. Wilberforce, Esq." and by Permission inscribed to him. Small 8vo. pp. 74. 1s. 6d. Conder, &c. 1799.

The author of this little tract is Mr. S. Palmer of Hackney; who, though he has not given his name in the title-page, has subscribed it to the Dedication. To this gentleman's piety and respectability of character, we are happy on every occasion to bear testimony: but we cannot adduce the work before us as a proof that he always argues with strength and effect. The utility and moral advantages of a Sabbath we cheerfully admit; and we would ever encourage so beneficial an institution: but this is a distinct thing from the question of its being a Divine Institution, of perpetual and universal obligation. Its appointment under the Jewish Theocracy is express. It made an indisputable part of their ceremonial law: but is there any clear evidence that this ordinance, any more than their laws and regulations respecting sacrifices, was designed to be obligatory on others? Mr. Palmer says that 'he does not mean to intimate that there is under the gospel any such holiness of times as there was under the law;' yet he undertakes to prove that the very same circumstance prevails under the gospel as under the law, viz. the appointment of one day in seven to be observed as *peculiarly* devoted to religion.

Because the 4th Commandment contains the clause *the stranger that is within thy gates*, Mr. P. would infer that it is obligatory on mankind at large: but this inference will not hold; since this part of the command cannot be supposed to contain a prohibition from labour to Heathens on the seventh day, but only a restriction on the Jews from employing even them on that day. The restrictive clause "*within thy gates*" is demonstrative of the non-universality of the command, and proves that it did not reach the *stranger without*.

Mr. P.'s comment on our Saviour's maxim, "*The sabbath was made for man, and not man for the sabbath*," is not more happy; 'the words (he says) naturally convey the idea that it was appointed not for the Jews only, but for all mankind in-general:' might he not as well have told us that they convey an idea of the Millenium? All that this general doctrine inculcates is, that the observance of a sabbath ought to be made beneficial, and not injurious to man; it speaks nothing of a sabbath being generally obligatory on mankind, nor on the subjects of the dispensation which was to succeed Judaism. The question, in order to be satisfactorily decided, requires fuller evidence: but where is this evidence to be found? Mr. P. farther quotes, "the Son of Man is LORD of the Sabbath," to prove that it was to continue under Christ's *Lordship* or jurisdiction; though the words were uttered by Christ himself for no such purpose, but only to justify a conduct which the Jews deemed a violation of that Sabbath. Christ here only asserts his right to observe it, or not, as he should think proper.

Can it be said that there is any express injunction, or any thing amounting to an injunction, in the Christian scriptures, relative to the observance of a sabbath? Nothing of the kind has been produced.

Had the first Christians considered the 4th commandment as religiously obligatory on them, it must have been thought to be so in all its parts; and they would not have deemed themselves at liberty to have altered the sabbath from the seventh to the first day of the week, without a specific command or warrant; which does not appear to have been given.

Mr. P. says, however, 'we have what is nearly equivalent to a command;—we have the practice of the first Christians:’ but this does not create a solemn obligation; it only proves their views of the propriety and expediency of such a practice.

Mr. Palmer's answers to other objections are equally unsatisfactory.

In his chapter on the manner in which the Sabbath ought to be kept, there are some good hints, to which all pious Christians will cheerfully attend: but he is rather too precise and dictatorial. He allows only 'a walk in a garden, or retired place, on a Sunday;’ this makes the rigour of the institution more severe *under grace* than *under the law*, for the Jews had a sabbath day's journey, and our Saviour's example justifies a walk in the common fields.

On this subject, we think it best not to descend to minute directions*. If Mr. P.'s argument, drawn from the 4th commandment, have any foundation, it will, it must, carry him farther than he intends; if it be defective, the whole must rest on the general ground of expediency and utility, on the laws of our country and the appointment of the Church.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Att. 45. *Letters written from various parts of the Continent, between the years 1785 and 1794: containing a variety of Anecdotes relative to the present State of Literature in Germany, and to celebrated German Literati. With an Appendix. In which are included Three Letters of Gray's, never before published in this country. Translated from the German of Frederick Matthisson, by Anne Plumptre, Translator of several of Kotzebue's plays. 8vo. pp. 544. 8s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1799.*

Having noticed the original of this work in our Appendix to vol. xxiii. N. S. p. 522. it remains that we should say a few words respecting the translation. On the whole, it does not seem to be ill executed; and the remarks which Miss Plumptre has annexed are in general pertinent, though they ought to have been more numerous; especially in letters xi. xxv. xxix. &c. She observes, p. 301. 'Literature, which for a long series of years was greatly neglected in Germany, has now become a rage, and every body turns author.' We never understood that, since the revival of letters, literature had at any time been neglected in that country: but it is well known that the Germans have not, till within these fifty or eighty years, paid much attention to their *language*, nor to *German literature*. Baron

* Who can help smiling at having it intimated to them by this writer, that 'the going a greater distance than is necessary, even to public worship,' is a species of sabbath-breaking which good Christians should avoid?

Riesbeck, whose travels have been translated into English by *Maty*, was certainly an intelligent man : but *Miss Plumptre* ought not to believe him implicitly when he speaks of *Götbe*, whom he treats rather illiberally. We might adduce some other inaccuracies in the text, as well as the notes : but they are not of moment.

We select the following passages as specimens of *Miss Plumptre's* translation :

'The quantity of bones in the charnel-house at Murten has, from various causes, been for some years visibly diminishing. In the first place, almost every traveller who visits them takes some away as a *souvenir* ; but what consumes them much more rapidly is, that on account of their extraordinary whiteness they are now much employed in turnery ware, particularly in making handles for knives. The post-boys of Geneva, to whom credit is due for discovering this new branch of trade, carry them away in large quantities, in order to make money of them in their native town : Bonstetten assured me, that ten years ago this heap of bones was at least some feet higher. In ancient times, it was a frequent practice among the inhabitants of Burgundy to come hither, for the purpose of carrying away as many as possible of these remains of their unhappy countrymen, that they might transport them over the borders and bury them in their native soil. But more curious was the fate of two skulls which the celebrated naturalist *Hebenstreit* took with him on his journey to Africa : before Tunis, where a religious bigotry prohibits the keeping of any human remains, they were discovered by the people who searched his chest, and thrown into the sea.'—

'From the Monastery of the Grand Saint-Bernard.

'As the ground for a considerable extent round the monastery is solid rock, the dead are collected together in a chapel, lying on its eastern side, which is made to admit a thorough draught of air, by openings in the walls guarded by large iron bars, as in the charnel-house at Murten. The sight of so many unfortunate persons, probably collected from various parts of the world, yet howsoever remote from each other in life, brought hither by an unfortunate similarity of fate to rest together in death, affected my inmost soul. They are all covered with palls ; and as in this frozen region no exanimate body moulders, but only gradually shrivels and dries away, so the features in the face remain undisfigured for a considerable length of time, and some have even been recognized by friends and relations after having lain here for two or three years. The bodies are not disposed one over the other, but are all placed upright, and each fresh corpse leans his head on the breast of the former : this disposition has something familiar in it, and gives them the semblance of being united only in a general slumber. Four rows of these slumberers already rest here, from the faces and hands of many of whom the palls have slipped off and left them uncovered : these have all a perfect mummy-like appearance.'

According to our judgment, *Miss Plumptre* has not been happy in her translation of the stanzas on the lake of Geneva. This little piece is in the original one of the most sublime and beautiful pieces of poetry

poetry that the Germans possess; in English, it is spiritless, and even below mediocrity. To translate poetry must ever be an excessively arduous and often an ungrateful task: but Mickle's *Lusiad*, Roscoe's *Nurse*, Sotheby's *Oberon*, and a few other instances, prove that it is possible to produce copies which equal and even surpass their originals.

Art. 46. *Elements of Elocution*: in which the Principles of Reading and Speaking are investigated; and such Pauses, Emphasis, and Inflections of Voice, as are suitable to every variety of Sentence, are distinctly pointed out and explained; with Directions for strengthening and modulating the Voice, so as to render it varied, forcible, and harmonious. To which is added, a complete System of the Passions, showing how they affect the Countenance, Tone of Voice, and Gesture of the Body, exemplified by a copious Selection of the most striking Passages of Shakespeare. The whole illustrated by Copper-plates, explaining the Nature of Accent, Emphasis, Inflection, and Cadence. The Second Edition, with Alterations and Additions. By John Walker, Author of the *Critical Pronouncing Dictionary*, &c. 8vo. pp. 400. No Price marked. Robinsons, &c. 1799.

In our Reviews for August and September 1781, vol. lxxv. we gave an account of the first edition of this work, and expressed our approbation of the ability and ingenuity of the author. We also made such copious extracts, that it is unnecessary for us to enlarge on the present edition: but the following observations, respecting the pause at the end of every line in blank verse, appear to be sensible and judicious; and, as the subject is curious, they may be gratifying to some of our readers.

‘Rule V. At the end of every line in poetry must be a pause proportioned to the intimate or remote connection subsisting between the two lines.

‘Mr. Sheridan, in his *Art of Reading*, has insisted largely on the necessity of making a pause at the end of every line in poetry, whether the sense requires it or not, which he says has hitherto escaped the observation of all writers on the subject; and this, he observes, is so necessary, that without it we change the verse into prose. It is with diffidence I dissent from such an authority, especially as I have heard it approved by persons of great judgment and taste*. I must own, however, that the necessity of this pause, where the sense does not require it, is not so evident to me as to remove every doubt about it; for, in the first place, if the author has so united the preceding and following lines in verse, as to make them real prose, why is a reader to do that which his author has neglected to do; and indeed

‘* I asked Dr. Lowth, Mr. Garrick, and Dr. Johnson, about the propriety of this pause, and they all agreed with Mr. Sheridan. Had I been less acquainted with the subject, and seen less of the fallibility of great names upon it, I should have yielded to this decision; but great names are nothing where the matter in question is open to experiment; and to this experiment I appeal.’

seems to have forbidden by the very nature of the composition? In the next place, this slight and almost insensible pause of suspension does not seem to answer the end proposed by it; which is, that of making the ear sensible of the versification, or of the number of accental impressions in every line. For this final pause is often so small, when compared with that which precedes or follows it in the body of the line, and this latter and larger pause is so often accompanied with an inflexion of voice which marks the formation of perfect sense, that the boundaries of the verse become almost, if not utterly imperceptible, and the composition, for a few lines, falls into an harmonious kind of prose. For it is evident, that it is not a small pause at the end of a line in verse, which makes it appear poetry to the ear, so much as that adjustment of the accented syllables which forms a regular return of stress, whether the line be long or short. Accordingly, we find, that those lines in blank verse, which have a long pause in the middle, from a conclusion of the sense, and a very short one at the end, from the sense continuing, are, in spite of all our address in reading, very prosaical. This prosaic air in these lines may have a very good effect in point of expression and variety, but if too frequently repeated, will undoubtedly render the verse almost imperceptible; for, as was before observed, the ear will measure the lines by the greatest pauses, and if these fall within, and not at the end of the line, the versification will seem to be composed of unequal lines, and will want that measure which the ear always expects in verse, and never dispenses with, but when sense, variety, or expression is promoted by it.—EXAMPLE.

‘ Deeds of eternal fame
Were done, but infinite; for wide was spread
That war, and various; sometimes on firm ground
A standing fight; then soaring on main wing,
Tormented all the air; all air seem’d then
Conflicting fire: long time in even scale
The battle hung’——

Milton.

‘ The pauses at the end of these lines are so small when compared with those in the body of the lines, that an appeal may be made to every ear for the truth of what has been just observed. This disproportion in the pauses cannot, however, be said to reduce the composition to prose; nay, even if we were to use no pauses at all at the end of the lines, they would not, on this account, entirely lose their poetic character; for, at worst, they might be called numerous or harmonious prose; and that the greatest part of blank verse is neither more nor less than this, it would not be difficult to prove.’

Art. 47. *Impartial Strictures on the Poem called “Pursuits of Literature:”* and particularly a Vindication of the Romance of “The Monk.” 8vo. 3s. Bell, Oxford-street.

While this author professes that his design is ‘merely to give some general strictures on the style and manner of the *Pursuits*, with observations on a few of the most striking passages, &c.’ it seems to us not improbable that his principal object was the defence of

of Mr. Lewis's *Novel* above-mentioned: a work which, with all its allowed *Genius*, has been justly censured for its impurity.

We have no idea who may be the author of these *Strictures*. He is undoubtedly a writer of good ability: but we are of opinion that he has failed in his attempts to defend the work of Mr. Lewis, against the vigorous attacks which have been made on it.

With respect to the other purposes of these strictures, viz. to shew that the avowed objects of the *Pursuits* 'are completely at variance with each other; as well as to expose a few instances of the illiberal abuse, the personal invective, and the gross misrepresentation, &c.' in following the critic through this long and varied investigation, we meet with frequent occasions of applauding his candid and moderate tone of investigation, and his readiness to do justice to the *Pursuer*, wherever his intentions appear to be laudable. He does not seem to be, in any instance, under the smallest influence of personal pique or resentment; and therefore, whatever may be thought of the weight of his strictures in some points, he fairly claims to be ranked among the foremost of ingenuous controvertists.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We should be glad to assist a person in the circumstances in which B— C— of Plymouth Dock represents himself, but we really have not leisure to wander so far out of the path of our duty.

The packet from J. D. of Charleston, South Carolina, the postage of which is about six times the price of the inclosure, can be of no use to us.

The work mentioned by R. A. Hoxton Square, never came into our hands; and we wish now to be excused from noticing it. The world is greatly overstocked with such publications, and we are weary of examining them.

Where will the writer, who signs *Verbum*, find good authority for the adverb *early*?

R. B. points out a mistake in the last Review, p. 404. copied from Mr. Middleton's Survey of Middlesex, where the total population should be 3,584,600, instead of 3,674,600.—We fear that unavoidable haste will not allow us to remedy the other complaint of R. B.

We thank Jeremy Sea; whose corrections would have been still more acceptable, had they arrived before our table of *Errata* in the last volume had been printed: see the *Appendix*.

* * In the Review for December, p. 363. l. 12. for 'of Euxine,' r. *of the Euxine*.—P. 393. l. 28. for 'Gay,' r. *Gray*.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. xxx. of the Monthly Review is published with this Number.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY, 1800.

ART. I. *Travels in Africa, Egypt, and Syria, from the Year 1792 to 1798.* By W. G. Browne. 4to. pp. 520. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

AN adequate knowledge of a country so extensive as Africa, and which it is so difficult to explore, can only be expected from the enterprise and the labours of many travellers. Mr. Park traversed a vast tract, settled some dubious questions in geography, and exhibited a picture of the manners and arts of life among a new people. The travels of the present author had a more contracted range, and add less to the sum of our information concerning Africa: yet what he has discovered and observed is not inconsiderable, nor of little value. He has given a full and (we presume) an accurate account of the government and people of Dar-Fûr; and to have failed in doing this would have merited censure, since he had time and opportunity to make his observations, and the inhabitants of the country of Dar-Fûr do not exceed two hundred thousand.

Of Egypt and Syria, the public possess many accounts; yet Mr. Browne's remarks and descriptions generally produce entertainment, and not unfrequently communicate instruction. We shall briefly mark his route, and occasionally give extracts.

Mr. B. arrived at Alexandria in 1792, and his first chapter contains a description of this city. One of his primary undertakings was to seek for the ruins of the Temple of Jupiter Ammon, in which he was unsuccessful. In his next journey from Alexandria to Rashid*, he slightly describes the village of Abûkir; now elevated and dignified in the consideration of the world by two memorable events; the late destruction of the fleet of France; and the murderous defeat of fifteen thousand

* Instead of the words Cairo, Damietta, and Rosetta, the author uses what he says are the proper names, Kahira, Damiatt, and Rashid.

Turks. The following extract contains the description of the country round Rashid :

‘ The road, for about two miles after leaving the gate of Rashid, is marked by many vestiges of buildings, but nothing worth observing. There are also many date trees scattered round in the neighbourhood of the canal, and vegetation enough to serve for food for the small flocks of the city. About two miles from Abu-kir are the ruins of a town, close to the sea, and a part of them under water. There are also some remains of columns. This is what has been remarked as the *Taposiris parva* of antiquity. Abu-kir is a village, consisting of few inhabitants. There is near it, however, a small port, and on the point of land which forms it, a fortress, but of little strength. A Tsoibashi resides there, with a few soldiers. He collects a toll from those who pass the ferry near it. It is a place of no trade, and vessels that frequent it come there chiefly for the purpose of avoiding bad weather. We were eight hours and a half in reaching Rashid, exclusively of the time taken up in crossing two ferries. The latter part of the road, from the sea-side to Rashid, has been all marked with short columns of burned brick, at certain distances from each other.

‘ The beauty and fertility of the country round Rashid deserves all the praise that has been given it. The eye is not, indeed, gratified with the romantic views, flowing lines, the mixture of plain and mountain, nor that universal verdure that is to be observed on the banks of the Rhine or the Danube. But his taste is poor who would reduce all kinds of picturesque beauty to one criterion. To me, after being wearied with the sandy dryness of the barren district to the west, the vegetable soil of Rashid, filled with every production necessary for the sustenance, or flattering to the luxury of man, the rice fields covering the superficies with verdure, the orange groves exhaling aromatic odours, the date trees formed into an umbrageous roof over the head ; shall I say the mosques and the tombs, which, though wholly incompatible with the rules of architecture, yet grave and simple in the structure, are adapted to fill the mind with pleasing ideas ; and above all, the unruffled weight of waters of the majestic Nile, reluctantly descending to the sea, where its own vast tide, after pervading and fertilizing so long a tract, is to be lost in the general mass : these objects filled me with ideas, which, if not great or sublime, were certainly among the most soothing and tranquil that have ever affected my mind.’

In the chapter concerning Kahira, the author describes the Beys, the Mamlûks, the Government of Egypt, and the state of politics while he was there. We do not feel ourselves inclined to give any other extract from this chapter, than a remark concerning Mr. Gray's poetical description of Egypt during the inundation of the Nile.

‘ Mr. Gray's well-known description of Egypt, as immersed under the influx of the Nile, is exquisitely poetical, but far from just. In Upper Egypt the river is confined by high banks, which prevent
any

any inundation into the adjacent country. This is also the case in Lower Egypt, except at the extremities of the Delta, where the Nile is never more than a few feet below the surface of the ground, and where inundation of course takes place. But the country, as may be expected, is without habitations. The fertility of Egypt arises from human art. The lands near the river are watered by machines; and if they extend to any width, canals have been cut. The soil in general is so rich as to require no manure. It is a pure black mould, free from stones, and of a very tenacious and unctuous nature. When left uncultivated, I have observed fissures, arising from the extreme heat, of which a spear of six feet could not reach the bottom.

In chap. 6. Mr. Browne thus briefly describes the charmers of serpents:

Romeik is an open place, of an irregular form, where feats of juggling are performed. The charmers of serpents also seem worthy of remark, their powers appearing extraordinary. The serpent most common at Kahira is of the viper class, and undoubtedly poisonous. If one of them enter a house, the charmer is sent for, who uses a certain form of words. I have seen three serpents enticed out of the cabin of a ship, lying near the shore. The operator handled them, and then put them into a bag. At other times I have seen the serpents twist round the bodies of these Psylli in all directions, without having had their fangs extracted or broken, and without doing them any injury.

We now hasten to give extracts from that part of the work which is most interesting. At Cobbé, a town in Dar-Fûr, situated lat. $14^{\circ} 11'$ long. E. G. $28^{\circ} 8'$ the author was detained for a long time, by an order from the Sultan Abd-el-rachman-el-rashid; and here he suffered a dangerous illness, and was robbed by the villainy of his agent who had attended him from Kahira. The method of conducting the harvest in Dar-Fûr is thus described:

The harvest is conducted in a very simple manner. The women and slaves of the proprietor are employed to break off the ears with their hands, leaving the straw standing, which is afterwards applied to buildings and various other useful purposes. They then accumulate them in baskets, and carry them away on their heads. When threshed, which is awkwardly and incompletely performed, they expose the grain to the sun till it become quite dry; after this an hole in the earth is prepared, the bottom and sides of which are covered with chaff to exclude the vermin. This cavity or magazine is filled with grain, which is then covered with chaff, and afterwards with earth. In this way the maize is preserved tolerably well. In using it for food, they grind it, and boil it in the form of polenta, which is eaten either with fresh or sour milk, or still more frequently with a sauce made of dried meat pounded in a mortar, and boiled with onions, &c.

The Furians use little butter; with the Egyptians and Arabs it is an article in great request. There is also another sauce which the

poorer people use and highly relish, it is composed of an herb called *Cowel*, or *Cawel*, of a taste in part acescent and in part bitter, and generally disagreeable to strangers.

As a substitute for bread, cakes of the same material are also baked on a smooth substance prepared for the purpose, which are extremely thin, and if dexterously prepared not unpalatable. These are called *kissery* (fragments or sections); they are also eaten with the sauce above mentioned, or with milk, or simply water; and in whatever form the grain be used, the rich cause it to be fermented before it be reduced to flour, which gives it a very agreeable taste. They also make no hesitation in eating the dough raw, but moistened with water, without either grinding or the operation of fire.

Concerning the population of Dar-Fûr, it is said :

‘The number of inhabitants in a country in so rude a state as this is at present, it must necessarily be extremely difficult to compute with precision. Possibly the levies for war may furnish some criterion. The Sultan, for about two years, had been engaged in a very serious war with the usurper of Kordofân. The original levies for this war I have understood consisted of about two thousand men. Continual reinforcements have been sent, which may be supposed to amount to more than half that number. At present the army does not contain more than two thousand, great numbers of them having been taken off by the small-pox, and other causes. Even this number is very much missed, and the army is still spoken of as a very large one. It seems to me, from this and other considerations, that the number of souls within the empire cannot much exceed two hundred thousand. Cobbé is one of their most populous towns; yet from the best computation I have been able to make, knowing the number of inhabitants in the greater part of the houses, I cannot persuade myself that the total amount of both sexes, including slaves, much exceeds six thousand. Of these the greater proportion are slaves.

‘The houses are separated from each other by wide intervals, as each man chooses for building the spot nearest to the ground he cultivates; so that in an extent of about two miles on a line, not much more than one hundred distinct inclosures properly to be termed houses are visible. The number of villages is considerable; but a few hundred souls form the sum of the largest. There are only eight or ten towns of great population.’

Of the manners of the inhabitants, we are told :

‘The troops of the country are not famed for skill, courage, or perseverance. In their campaigns much reliance is placed on the Arabs who accompany them, and who are properly tributaries rather than subjects of the Sultan. One energy of barbarism they indeed possess, in common with other savages, that of being able to endure hunger and thirst; but in this particular they have no advantage over their neighbours. On the journey, a man whom I had observed travelling on foot with the caravan, but unconnected with any person, asked me for bread—“How long have you been without it?” said I.—

“Two

"Two days," was the reply.—"And how long without water?"—"I drank water last night."—This was at sun-set, after we had been marching all day in the heat of the sun, and we had yet six hours to reach the well. In their persons the Fûrians are not remarkable for cleanliness. Though observing as Mohammedans all the superstitious formalities of prayer, their hair is rarely combed, or their bodies completely washed. The hair of the pubes and axillæ it is usual to exterminate; but they know not the use of soap; so that with them polishing the skin with unguents holds the place of perfect ablutions and real purity. A kind of farinaceous paste is however prepared, which being applied with butter to the skin, and rubbed continually till it become dry, not only improves its appearance, but removes from it accidental sordes, and still more the effect of continued transpiration, which, as there are no baths in the country, is a consideration of some importance. The female slaves are dexterous in the application of it, and to undergo this application is one of the refinements of African sensuality. Their intervals of labour and rest are fixed by no established rule, but governed by inclination or personal convenience. Their fatigues are often renewed under the oppressive influence of the meridian sun, and in some districts their nightly slumbers are interrupted by the dread of robbers, in others by the musquitoes and other inconveniences of the climate.*—

'The disposition of the people of Fûr has appeared to me more cheerful than that of the Egyptians; and that gravity and reserve which the precepts of Mohammedism inspire, and the practice of the greater number of its professors countenances and even requires, seem by no means as yet to sit easy on them. A government perfectly despotic, and at this time not ill administered, as far as relates to the manners of the people, yet forms no adequate restraint to their violent passions*. Prone to inebriation, but unprovided with materials or ingenuity to prepare any other fermented liquor than *bûza*, with this alone their convivial excesses are committed. But though the Sultan hath just published an ordinance (March 1795) forbidding the use of that liquor under pain of death, the plurality, though less publicly than before, still indulge themselves in it. A company often sits from sun-rise to sun-set drinking and conversing, till a single man sometimes carries off near two gallons of that liquor. The *bûza* has however a diuretic and diaphoretic tendency, which precludes any danger from these excesses.

'In this country, dancing is practised by the men as well as the women, and they often dance promiscuously. Each tribe seems to have its appropriate dance: that of Fûr is called *Secondari*, that of Bukkara *Bendala*. Some are grave, others lascivious, but consisting rather of violent efforts than of graceful motions. Such is their fondness for this amusement, that the slaves dance in fetters to the music of a little drum; and, what I have rarely seen in Africa or

* The inhabitants of a village called *Bernoo*, having quarrelled with those of another hamlet, and some having been killed on both sides, all the property of both villages was forfeited to the king, the inhabitants being abandoned to poverty.

the East, the time is marked by means of a long stick held by two, while others beat the cadence with short batons.

‘ They use the games of *Tab-u-duk* and *Dris-wa-talaîté*, described by Niebuhr, which however appear not indigenous, but to have been borrowed of the Arabs.

‘ The vices of thieving, lying, and cheating in bargains, with all others nearly or remotely allied to them, as often happen among a people under the same circumstances, are here almost universal. No property, whether considerable or trifling, is safe out of the sight of the owner, nor indeed scarcely in it, unless he be stronger than the thief. In buying and selling, the parent glories in deceiving the son, and the son the parent; and God and the Prophet are hourly invoked, to give colour to the most palpable frauds and falsehoods.

‘ The privilege of polygamy, which, as is well known, belongs to their religion, the people of Soudân push to the extreme. At this circumstance the Musselmans of Egypt, with whom I have conversed on the subject, affect to be much scandalized: for whereas, by their law they are allowed four free women, and as many slaves as they can conveniently maintain, the Fûrians take both free women and slaves without any limitation. The Sultan has more than an hundred free women, and many of the Meleks have from twenty to thirty. Teraub, a late king, contented himself with about five hundred females as a light travelling equipage in his wars in Kordofân, and left as many more in his palace. This may seem ridiculous, but when it is recollected that they had corn to grind, water to fetch, food to dress, and all menial offices to perform for several hundred individuals, and that these females (excepting those who are reputed *Serrari*, concubines of the monarch) travel on foot, and even carry utensils, &c. on their heads, employment for this immense retinue may be imagined, without attributing to the Sultan more libidinous propensities than belong to others of the same rank and station.’

‘ The route of Mr. Browne on his return from Dar-Fûr was through Kahira, and thence to Damiatr. On the occasion of mentioning this latter place, he relates an anecdote descriptive of the character of the people under the Mamlûk government:

‘ A circumstance had recently occurred, tending to paint the character of the people under the Mamlûk government. A Cashef, but not of the highest order, under Murad Bey, who had been disgraced a short time before, retired to Damiatt to avoid his master’s anger. He had not long resided there, when, having heard more favourable tidings, he made an inquiry for some person, capable of exchanging for him a sum in Turkish money, for the like in that of Europe current in the country. Accordingly three Jews were found who promised to supply him according to his desire. They went round the city, and borrowed much in addition to what they already possessed, and at length carried to the Cashef to the amount of between five and six thousand patackes. He was no sooner furnished with the money, than he directed the Jews to be murdered,

murdered, and his boats being ready, caused their bodies to be packed in baskets, and put into a small boat of his train. He then set off for Kahira. On arriving at a village a little way up the river, the baskets were disembarked, and he ordered them to be safely lodged till further directions should be given. It was some time before the villagers took notice of the packages, or dared to open them in the absence of the owner. But at length having observed a quantity of blood near one of them, and entertaining suspicions, they opened the three, and news were immediately carried to Damiatt that the three Jews had been found in this condition. Those under whose cognizance such accidents are, made a memorial of the whole affair to Murad Bey. He replied only by loud laughter, saying, "Are they not three dogs? There is an end of them."

At Damiatt, the author embarked for Yaffé, at which place he arrived after a passage of five days; he visited Jerusalem, Beruth, Naplosa, Nazareth, Acré, Tyre, Tripoli, Antioch, Aleppo, Damascus; and from Antioch he proceeded to Constantinople. As the Pasha Ghezzah, or as Mr. Browne calls him Jézzar, has been of late the subject of much conversation, and of many Gazettes; and as he has been made to share at Acré, with a British officer, the glory of defeating an army and a General which had to that time been invincible, and of saving Constantinople and Vienna; we shall extract those parts of Mr. Browne's narration which relate to his character and actions:

'The long reign of Achmet Pasha *el Jezzâr*, (the butcher,) accompanied with immense influence and great wealth, might naturally lead to conceive, that, blending his interests with those of his subjects, he would have exerted his authority in promoting their happiness. On the contrary, the large plain near Acré is left almost a marsh, and marks of idle magnificence have been substituted for the useful cares of agriculture. A striking contrast arises between his conduct and that of the Shech Daher, his predecessor, who raised Acré from a village to a large town, and doubled the population of the district.

'Jezzâr was the first governor in the empire who laid a tax on articles of consumption, as wine, grain, and the like. Even meat and fish are materials of impost. He has erected granaries, a laudable design, but deficient in the execution; for the grain being ill preserved, and the oldest served out first, it is not only disagreeable as food, but unprolific when distributed for seed to the peasants. These imposts form the peculiar revenue of the Pasha; the other resources arising as usual from the tax on land, which amounts to about a twentieth of the rent, the capitation tax on Christians, and the customs; which last in this government are arbitrary, and neither regulated by the rules of the Porte, nor the capitulations entered into by Europeans. Nevertheless, the chief source of the riches of Jezzâr is the Pashalik of Damascus, which, by means of the usual largesses at the Porte, he contrived to add to his former government, a precedent

very unusual in the Othman empire. His military force was once computed at twelve thousand; but, at the time of my visiting Acré, did not exceed four or five thousand.

'Till the year 1791 the French had factories at Acré, Seidé, and Beirût. At that period they were all expelled from the territory of Jezzâr by a sudden mandate, which allowed them only three days to abandon their respective habitations, under pain of death.

'Passing over the common, but just rule of supposing, that in a quarrel of this magnitude neither party was perfectly free from error, it may be fit to inquire what motives induced this ignominious expulsion, when a simple dismissal, to be signified by various other means, would have answered the same purpose.

'To this it can only be answered, that the character of Jezzâr is impetuous, and even capricious, on all occasions. Sometimes a warm friend, and then suddenly a bitter enemy, equally, to all appearance, without any adequate reason. As to the conduct of the French, themselves and the other nations in the Levant accord so ill, that I have never obtained a very accurate statement of it. It seems to have originated in the behaviour of a drogueman of the nation, who having in some way offended the Pasha, was by his order summarily strangled or hanged. The French remonstrated, and threatened him with an application to the Porte, which he did not greatly fear, and he punished, *as he termed it, their insolence*, (in asserting their undoubted right, according to the capitulations between them and the Porte,) in this concise manner. Many complaints were made, subsequent to this period, by the ministers of the Republic at the Porte, but to no purpose: that court in fact was otherwise engaged, and it may be doubted whether it could have punished the Pasha. The events that followed suspended the prosecution of those claims, which, as the merchants thus suddenly banished had lost much, it appeared they had a right to prefer: but at length Aubert du Bayet sent a young officer of the name of Bailli to the Pasha to demand redress in a tone perhaps rather too high.

'This gentleman, on arriving at Acré, April 1797, wrote a letter in French to the Pasha, which he had the bizarre idea of finding some Levantine drogueman to translate, *verbatim*, in the presence of that personage. The terms, it seems, in which this letter was conceived were so bold, that none could be found to present it, and the Pasha, under one pretence or other, refused to see the agent. On this Bailli retired to Yaffé. The answer Jezzâr sent to the claim of the Republic was, that private merchants were at liberty to settle under his government on the footing of any other nation, but that he would acknowledge no consul, nor consent to offer them any indemnification for the losses of the late factory.'—

'The celebrated Asad Pasha, mentioned by Niebuhr and Volney, left an only daughter, of whom, on her marriage with Mohammed Pasha Adm, sprang the present Pasha Abdallah. Mohammed Pasha Adm was preceded by Osmân, and succeeded by two of his own brothers successively, the last of whom, named Derwish, was expelled by the intrigues of Jezzâr, who gained his office, and married the daughter of Mohammed Pasha Adm. This marriage of ambition,

not

not of affection, terminated in a divorce a year after. Among other instances of his bad treatment of this lady, it is recorded that Jezzâr, meeting her one day in the house, where she happened to have *cab-cab*, or Arabian pattens on her feet, pulled a pistol from his cincture, and fired it at her, saying, "Art thou the wife of an Arabian peasant? dost thou forget that thou art the wife of a Pasha?"

Jezzâr retained his ill-won pashalik of Damascus only a few years; his government was a continual scene of oppression and cruelty, and he is supposed to have extorted from the people not less than twenty-five thousand purses, or about a million and two hundred thousand pounds sterling; and to have put to death near four hundred individuals, most of them innocent. His own misconduct and suspicious designs, when leading the caravan to Mecca, conspired with the machinations of his enemies at the Porte to deprive him of his office: but living monuments of his cruelty remain, in the noseless faces and earless heads of many of the Damascenes. Thus driven from Damascus, he returned to his former pashalik of Acré and Seidé, where he remains. This government, which he held along with that of Damascus, he has retained upwards of twenty-seven years.

Jezzâr was succeeded by the present Pasha Abdallah, whose administration, though eminent as before observed for equity, is yet liable to the charge of mismanagement of the public revenue, and of an indecorous timidity. Under the energetic sway of Jezzâr, the sacred caravan had met with no obstructions on its route; but that of the present year, not only found the reservoirs for water destroyed or damaged, so that many camels perished for want of that indispensable article, but even the pilgrims were insulted by the Arabs, probably incited by the arts and malicious revenge of Jezzâr. By dint of bribes, however, at the Porte, Abdallah prevented his expected deprivation.

At Damascus, the author saw the entrance of the grand caravan from Mecca:

On the day after my arrival, I was entertained with the entrance of the grand caravan from Mecca. The street was lined for some miles, for such is its length, with innumerable spectators, all impressed with curiosity, some with anxiety to see their friends and relations, many with reverence for the sacred procession. Some of the more opulent Hadjis, or pilgrims, were carried in litters, (*tattarawân*,) but the greater number in a kind of panniers, two and two, placed on the back of camels. They did not appear much fatigued, though it was said they had suffered from the want of water.

On the Saturday following, was the entrance of the Pasha of Damascus, who is constantly the *Emîr-el-Hadje*, or chief of the caravan by office. First appeared three hundred dellsis, or cavalry, mounted on Arabian horses, variously armed and clothed, but on the whole forming no mean display. These were succeeded by fifteen men on dromedaries, with musketoons, or large carbines, placed before them, and turning on a swivel, in every direction. This destructive instrument of war is said to have passed from the Persians to

to the Syrians. Some of the great officers of the city followed, well mounted, and decently attired. Then came part of the Pasha of Tripoli's Janizaries, well clothed and armed; that Pasha himself, with his officers, and the remainder of his guard. Next was the tatarawân belonging to the Pasha of Damascus, another body of four hundred dellis, a company of thirty musquetooners, a hundred and fifty Albanians, in uniform, and marching two and two, like our troops. Before the latter was borne the standard of the Prophet, *Senjak Sherif*, of green silk, with sentences of the Korân embroidered in gold, and the magnificent canopy brought from Mecca, guarded by a strong body of Muggrebins, or western Arabs, on foot. Then passed the Pasha's three tails, (generally of white horses,) borne by three men on horseback; twelve horses, (a Pasha of two tails has only six,) richly caparisoned, and each bearing a silver target and a sabre; six led dromedaries, in beautiful housings; numbers of the chief persons of the city followed, among whom were the Aga of the Janizaries, the governor of the castle, and the Mohassel. Last came the Pasha himself, in a habit of green cloth adorned with fur of the black fox, preceded by his two sons, the eldest about fourteen, all mounted on the most spirited steeds of Arabia, and followed by his household troops, to the number of four hundred, well armed and mounted. More than a hundred camels had preceded the rest, bearing the tents and baggage of the Pasha. The whole was conducted without any noise or tumult, to the great credit of the Damascene mob, who had been waiting several hours without their usual repast.

Respecting all works of the nature of that before us, in order to determine the writer's claim to public regard and gratitude, the sum and novelty of the information communicated are principally to be considered. We have already said that Mr. Browne relates many new and important facts: but they might have been told in a narrower compass, and would have been more useful if more methodically disposed. The want of arrangement is indeed a material evil; and if the author confesses this want, he only shifts, but does not entirely remove, the censure which is to be attached to him. Mental entertainment is an object, we hesitate to say a subordinate one, at which books of travels aim; and although we are not able, perhaps, to exhibit passages which claim the praise of elegance of narration or grandeur of description, still we frequently, during the perusal of the book, found our attention engaged and our curiosity gratified. Yet, if mental entertainment was intended, mental disgust must be the sure consequence of several parts of the work, which are obnoxious to the feelings and opinions of the generality of readers. Some passages, a regard to delicacy should have expunged; and some should have been suppressed from a becoming respect for the prejudices of mankind. The pomp of language but imperfectly conceals the

obscenity of ideas; and images of corrupt enjoyment may be seen through the veil of a writer's allusions. Religion, of whatever kind, or denomination, is invaded sometimes by insinuation, and sometimes by direct and open attack. The follower of Mohammed and the disciple of Christ seem to be alike objectionable to Mr. Browne; and he speaks of 'an infernal hatred which two divinely inspired religions could alone inspire.'—His style, comprehending under that term *images* and their *signs*, is open to great reprehension. Of his words, some are newly coined, some affected, and some obsolete: he speaks of evils '*coetaneous* with a state of society,' of * '*aculeate* sarcasms,' of 'game being indigenous,' and of the progress of the wheels of a carriage being 'sufficiently vociferous.' The general character of the metaphors employed for the purpose of illustration, or ornament, is that they are too splendid and superb; the mind is too much swollen by the adventitious idea. The construction of several of the sentences is inverted: the pronouns are frequently omitted; and elegance is sacrificed, but not compensated, by the acquisition of force.

Yet, after all abatements have been made from the praise of the author, much must remain to him. As a traveller, he appears to possess many excellent qualities; patience, courage, address, vigilance of observation, and acuteness of discernment. Estimating him as a writer, we have to wish that, to a mind fraught with knowledge, had been added a better judgment; and that he had formed his style on chaster models. If his language be sometimes nervous, it is seldom pure; when he attempts grandeur, he is only gorgeous; and he is concise and abrupt, without being impressive and energetic.

In a word, had he been less desirous of swelling his volume, he might have made greater additions to the stock of knowledge; and, with a more moderate ambition of saying things splendidly and forcibly, he might have deserved the praise of having adorned and enforced the dictates of truth.

* The word *aculeate* is used by Bacon in his 58th Essay, on anger; "Of extreme bitterness of words, especially if they be aculeate and proper."

ART. II. *A Proposal for restoring the Antient Constitution of the Mint, so far as relates to the Expence of Coinage. Together with the Outline of a Plan for the Improvement of the Money; and for increasing the Difficulty of Counterfeiting.* By the Rev. Rogers Ruding, B. D. Vicar of Maldon in Surry. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sewell, &c. 1799.

THE author of this pamphlet complains that the coinage, which was formerly a source of revenue to the crown, has, for nearly a century and a half past, by the alteration of the antient constitution of the mint, been managed in a manner detrimental to the public; and that, 'whilst other nations have derived considerable advantage from their mints, Great Britain has coined at a great and regular expence; and has given with ill-judged, though doubtless well-intended, policy, that profit to individuals, which might with more propriety have been applied to the public service.'

'The late appointment of a Committee of the Privy Council to take into consideration the state of the coins, &c. with the act (38 Geo. III. cap. 59) that followed, suspending, for a time, the coinage of silver, afford well-grounded expectations that the present mode of coinage will be abolished, so far as may be without detriment to the public; and some other adopted, which, instead of being burthensome, may be profitable to the state. But whether by the re-imposition of a seignorage, diminishing the weight of the pieces, or increasing the alloy, the public has not yet been informed.'

The profits which, formerly, the revenue received from the mint, arose from a seignorage paid by those who brought bullion to be coined; and from a difference made between the Money Pound, or Pound Tower, and the Pound Troy; the officers of the mint receiving by one weight, and issuing their coin by the other.

In the present state of Great Britain, when commerce flows through so many channels, and is so well understood, coin will not purchase more than its own intrinsic value in bullion; (silver in small quantities, for the convenience of change, excepted;) and probably, the difficulty of obtaining bullion on easier terms in the reign of Henry VIII. was the principal reason, which induced the king and council then to determine that the Pound Tower should give place to the Pound Troy in the coinage at the mint. In the reign of Charles II. the seignorage was abolished, and since then the expence of coinage has been borne by the public. Henry VIII. and Charles II. were both necessitous princes, and neither of them was of such a character as can excite the supposition that they would unnecessarily

cessarily lessen their revenue, or be willing to relinquish any privilege which could be retained with advantage to themselves.

Mr. R. thus estimates the loss to the state from the alterations in the constitution of the mint: 'From the 25th of October 1760, to the 18th of March 1797, 57,274,617l. 4s. 6d. in gold, and 63,419l. 6s. 8d. in silver, have been delivered from the mint. Now the profit on the gold, according to the difference between the Pound Tower and the Pound Troy, would have been little short of three millions, or, according to the seigniorage, above one million. To which, if the expence of coinage be added, (taking it at no more than 10,000l. *per annum*) amounting to 380,000l. it will be found, that by the coinage of gold alone, for 38 years (more correctly 36½ years), this kingdom has sustained a loss of at least three millions and a quarter, at the highest computation; and at the lowest, nearly one million and an half: to which the loss by the silver coinage will make an addition of a few thousand pounds.'

This *loss* is in fact no other than the relinquishment of a privilege which had ceased to be productive; and which, in its most productive state, could not have been of much importance, the quantity of money then coined being so inconsiderable. The positive loss to the revenue has been the expence of coinage.

To enhance the nominal value, or to diminish the intrinsic value of the coins, would be remedying a small evil by the introduction of greater, and possibly at the expence of important advantages. Scarcely any one will believe that the creation of revenue, by the profits of coinage, ought at this time to be attempted; nor that it could be productive of advantage. The expence of coinage is so very small a proportion of the national expenditure, that it cannot be an object worth the hazard of any experiment, which might affect our commerce or our public credit. If the alteration from the antient constitution of the mint has conduced to the increase of circulation, or has added strength to the national credit, (and we fully believe that it has done both,) it may be regarded as a speculation of liberal policy which has well answered the end proposed.

A diminution of the intrinsic standard value of coin would produce at least a proportionate decrease in its ability. It would retain its identity only in name. This would immediately be felt in all our foreign concerns, and thence communicated, if the commercial shrewdness of our countrymen did not sooner point it out to them. It is not to be credited that the alteration of the name, by which any specific weight

or value of specie is called, will alter its power, or its relative estimation with other commodities.

In former times, alterations in the standard coin must have been attended with injury to many. There is, however, a consideration of very superior magnitude, peculiar to latter times, which strongly militates against alterations in the intrinsic value of the coin, viz. the National Debt. The value of the pound sterling, according to every sentiment of integrity and of public faith, should not be subject to variation. If the intrinsic value of the guinea were altered, we will suppose to nine-tenths of its present standard value, and that it still retained its representative value of one pound one shilling sterling, the ounce of gold now valued at about 3l. 17s. 10½d. would be valued at 4l. 6s. 6d. of the new coinage. The public creditor, and indeed all other creditors who lent before the alteration, and who were not paid till afterward, would thus sustain a loss of 10 *per cent.* A less quantity of gold would be necessary to pay debts; and, by the alteration, debtors would be relieved unjustly at the expence of the creditors.—The pound sterling, if altered once, may be altered a second time, or any indefinite number of times, till it is reduced to the level of a French *assignat*.

Mr. R.'s specific proposal only extends to the silver coin, but his observations and arguments professedly go farther. The idea of a mode of coinage, profitable to the state, suggests something more than an alteration in the silver coinage.

It might happen that the relative value of gold and silver should so vary as to render it inconvenient, perhaps impracticable, to preserve the gold and silver coin in the same proportion of weight and fineness to each other as at present:—in which case, it would remain to be decided by which of the two the value of the pound sterling should be determined. The gold being the more precious metal seems the most proper for a standard: but one or the other coin should be immutable.

With respect to a new silver coinage, Mr. R. proposes that the shillings shall be reduced to 90 grains, instead of 92½. He argues that, 'as foreigners have without scruple received sixpences at little more than one-third, and shillings at about two-thirds of their proper standard weight, we may reasonably suppose that they will not conceive themselves grievously injured, when they receive for their commodities, money which wants not more than 5 *per cent.* of the present standard weight.' The author of *Thoughts on a New Coinage of Silver**,

* See Rev. vol. xxvii. N. S. p. 463.

whom Mr. R. quotes, thinks otherwise; "because the real value (of the present worn silver coin) being so little, could never make them pass from hand to hand with reference to themselves, but they are taken in exchange for convenience and accommodation, and as the representatives of the better sort; lessen the weight of these, and then the shilling, new or worn, will only pass as a sign for an inferior value, and could never command the same estimation as before, purchasing of course fewer commodities."

This is better argued than expressed. That our present worn silver coin is received by foreigners can only be for the convenience of change, which extends not beyond the fractional parts of a pound; because light money is certainly not taken to be stored up. Had the standard silver coin been less in weight, the worn silver at present current would likewise have been lighter than it now is; for it is fair to conclude that, under the same circumstances, the same proportion would have been found to exist between the standard and the worn coin; or, if there were any difference, that it would be in favour of the larger coins.

In the author's 'Outlines of a Plan for a New Coinage of Silver,' his observations on the form most convenient for protection from waste by friction in wearing, and on the means of rendering the counterfeiting of coin more difficult, appear to be the most deserving of consideration.

ART. III. *An Essay on Practical Musical Composition*, according to the Nature of that Science, and the Principles of the greatest musical Authors. By Augustus Frederic Christopher Kollmann, Organist of his Majesty's German Chapel at St. James's. Folio. 11. 1s. Printed for the Author, Friary, St. James's Palace; and sold at the Music-shops. 1799.

WE examined a work with a title similar to this in 1796*, by the same author; to which the present seems designed as a sequel, or second volume, though not so called. We gave a very favourable opinion of the doctrines contained in that publication, and chiefly confined our remarks to verbal criticism. As, however, the ingenious author is a foreigner, we should not be too severe on his language, or we might object to the title of the present work. Music is no otherwise entitled to rank among the sciences, than by its connection with mathematics. It is a science in Euclid's *Section of the Canon*, in Smith's *Harmonics*, and in the divisions of the scale by all the antient and modern theorists by ratios and surd quantities:

* See our New Series, vol. xxi. p. 27.

But, after the scale and temperament are settled by numerical proportions, the invention of melody and the combination of sounds in harmony form an *art*, which Mr. K. has very properly expressed in calling his publication an *Essay on the Composition of Practical Music*. When he adds, however, 'according to the *nature* of the *science*,' he seems to say, 'according to the *nature* of the *art*.' Nevertheless, in a work of this kind, if the *technica*, or terms peculiar to the art, be accurately defined, and the readers understand the author's meaning; though the words should not be strictly arranged according to the nice idiom of our language, the performance will not be the less useful; because the notation, in the examples given in musical characters, will illustrate and explain the text to a musician, more clearly than the most elegant language.

Mr. Kollmann's plan will be manifested by a period or two from his preface:

'With regard to Doctrines, I have endeavoured not to waste much room with descriptions of the mere Forms; which have been hitherto introduced in the different sorts of musical pieces; but rather to teach the Principles on which every remarkable branch of composition depends, and according to which the known forms of a piece may be varied, as well as new forms invented. By this method I have endeavoured to explain sonatas, symphonies, and other pieces of composition; without giving whole pieces of each sort.'

'With regard to Examples, I have chiefly selected for my purpose such pieces as have either not yet been printed, or as are scarce and not generally known; and only referred to such others as I suppose to be either universally known in this country, or easily to be obtained. But I have taken pains to explain and exemplify every thing in such a manner, as to render it intelligible, without those works to which I refer, or which I only mention; and that consequently the reader will not be under the necessity of procuring them for the sake of understanding this work.'

Having in his former treatise explained intervals, a fundamental base, and the harmonies or combination of sounds built on that structure; having given a kind of etymology of chords of all sorts, whether composed of consonances or dissonances; and having treated of suspension and anticipation; of modulation, rhythm, simple and double counterpoint, imitation, fugue, variation, &c. Mr. K. now proceeds to give plans and instructions for every species of composition: as *sonatas*, *symphonies*, and *concertos*: *simple and double fugues*: *canons*: *vocal music*: *instrumental music*: *the compass of instruments*: *of compositions for the organ*: *particular movements defined*: *national music*.

This is such an ample range of discussion, that it must be extremely interesting to a young composer; and we think that the author's promises, however great, have been well performed.

performed. In his introduction, he points out to his readers the most profitable method of studying his treatises; and dwells particularly on the importance of analyzing scores, in much the same manner as boys at a grammar-school *parse* their exercises.

We do not recollect to have seen a book (at least in our own language) which goes so deeply and methodically into the subject of composition, as the performance before us:—but we are a little *at fault* in pp. 2, 3, 4, 5, in the author's reference to works which are not in our possession; and we must observe, with respect to frequent references in books of instruction, that professional musical students can afford neither time to read nor money to purchase many expensive publications. As the two folio volumes on *Musical Harmony* will incur a considerable expenditure of both time and money, it will probably have an interested appearance in the author, if he obliges a poor student to purchase others of his works for the illustration of the doctrines contained in these two volumes; which, considering their size and the number of plates contained in them, might be expected to be complete in themselves, both as to text and illustration. Indeed, the plates to the present volume are not only numerous, but curious; containing examples of composition from scarce and excellent productions by the greatest masters. We only wish that so useful an elementary work should be within the reach of those who are the most likely to grasp at it. Even those who may be in possession of all the *extra* publications, quoted in this treatise, would perhaps unwillingly be at the trouble of seeking them; and would rather pass, unsatisfied and uninstructed, over the passages in which such illustrations are wanted, than leave the fire-side in order to search for them.

We think that the whole substance of p. 4 might have been expressed in very few lines, by saying that, in *Rondeaux* and pieces of length, the composer may modulate into all the relative or kindred keys in which the subject begins and ends; as in C major, for example, the 5th and 4th major, and the 6th and 3d minor; even the 2d minor, though not a relative key to C, yet is relative to the 4th and 5th; and, as every sound of its chord appertains to the scale of the original key of C major, the modulation into it, by means of an accidental C sharp and B flat, is always pleasing in the works of able masters.

What the ingenious author means by the word *elaboration*, which he so frequently uses technically, will not (we fear) be always understood by English readers in the exact sense intended. In *Rondeaux*, perhaps *episodes*, or excursions, would

express the different strains which precede the theme itself. As no art nor science is more loaded with *technica* than music, it is desirable that, if additions must be made to them, they should be translations of words from foreign dialects; or equivalents in more familiar and intelligent words in our own language. The Germans and Spaniards, as well as the Italians, have their own musical *technica*.

The author's definition and analysis of *symphony* are clear and accurate: *Concerto* is likewise admirably characterized.

Fugue being of a more artificial and complicated construction than *sonatas*, *concertos*, and *symphonies*, it was a more difficult task to define and analyze the term.—At p. 26. § 6. we think that the word *Melody* should be substituted for that of *Harmony*. In a regular fugue, (which Dr. Burney somewhere calls a *republican composition*, where *equality* of importance subsists through the movement,) the melody is equally distributed among the several parts, (like land in the *Agrarian law*,) which parts are *mockeries* of each other. Each part may be equally interested in the *harmony* of other movements: but, in a *fugue*, the subject of each point being repeated by every voice or instrument in the same intervals, it particularly interests every performer in the *melody*. *Proper* and *improper* fugues had better have been expressed, as is usual in our language, by *regular* and *irregular* fugues or imitations.—This subject is very ably and amply treated, in three several chapters, v. vi. and vii.

Chapters viii. and ix. treat of *Canon*, in a very full and scientific manner. We have had no express treatise on composition, in which fugue and canon have been so extensively discussed, since the time of old *Elmoyn Bevin*; who, in 1631, published his *Brieffe Introduction to the Art of Fugue, Canon, and Harmony in general*; and which, for the time, was a very learned and ingenious work: but the examples being all Bevin's own, and on very simple and dry subjects, Mr. Kollmann has greatly the advantage of him, not only in his own more pleasing and modern examples, but in the insertion of canons by the greatest composers of the present century, in almost every species of construction.

The French expressions of *la difficulté vaincue*, and *tour de force*, are phrases for which we have no equivalents, or they would perhaps be applied to *fugue* and *canon* by anti-fughists; which are said by many to have no other merit than the difficulty of composing them:—but that alone is a considerable merit in the course of a young musician's studies. The being able to vanquish the difficulties of fugue and canon, though both may be out of fashion *in public*, furnishes a *tyro* with

resources of harmony and melody in other compositions, which facilitate the construction and heighten their effects.

After the elaborate chapters on fugue and canon, we have one (the xth) on *Vocal Music*, in which the different species of composition for the voice,—as airs, recitatives, duets, trios, quartets, &c. and choruses,—are specified and described, with judicious discrimination, and with many useful precepts for composing them.

Chapter xi. contains much information with respect to *Instrumental Music*: as the compass of the several instruments used in a complete orchestra and military band; and pieces for the organ, with reflections on the genius of that most noble instrument. Lastly, chapter xii. treats of *National Music*, different styles of composition, and definitions of the names given to movements vocal and instrumental, including songs and dances of every kind in general use.

The plates, of which there are 67, constitute a very valuable part of this publication; and by the study of them, as well as of the letter-press, a learner in composition may furnish his mind with a great portion of musical erudition.

Though Mr. Kollmann is a perfect master of his subject, yet, being less acquainted with the musical language of this country than with that of Germany, he has been guilty of a few misnomers: as calling the keys of an organ or harpsichord, the *fingerboard*; a term which belongs to the violin, tenor, and violoncello:—the French *clavier* and the Italian *tastatura* express the keys of an organ or piano forte in the aggregate, better than we do by a *set of keys*. Mistakes of this kind, however, as they lead to no error of doctrine, are very excusable; and we shall not enter farther into verbal criticism on a work so replete with real knowledge, and with well-founded precepts on the subject which the author has undertaken to elucidate.

ART. IV. *A General View of the Agriculture of the County of Argyll; with Observations on the Means of its Improvement.* Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. By John Smith, D. D. one of the Ministers of Campbelton. 8vo. pp. 322. 8s. Boards (with a Map). Edinburgh, printed, 1798; London, sold by Wright.

ACCORDING to this survey, in which Dr. Smith appears to have taken considerable pains, Argyleshire forms about one eleventh part of Scotland, and one thirtieth of Great

Britain; containing, by estimation, 2735 square miles, or 1,367,500 Scotch acres*. Of these, it is stated,

1,213,500 acres may be heath, hill, and pasture

100,000 ditto arable

30,000 ditto wood

24,000 ditto fresh water lakes and rivers.

The climate over this large district is different as to heat and cold, dryness and moisture. By the sea coast, the atmosphere is mild and temperate; the frost being seldom so intense as to sink the thermometer 8 degrees below Fahrenheit's freezing point.

The continent of Argyleshire is divided among 156 proprietors, and the islands have 25. The valued rent of the continent is 9924l. 8s. 1d., and of the islands 2541l. 17s. 9d.; total for the whole county, 12,466l. 5s. 10d., being a little more than one 25th of the valuation of Scotland, which is 322,716l. 13s. 4d.

Under the title of *Size of Farms*, we are informed that those which consist mostly of sheep-walks are large; that one is computed to be 18 or 20 miles in length, and from 3 to 4 in breadth; and that possessions occupying from 2 to 6 square miles are not uncommon. Dr. Smith does not view this mode of occupation with complacency; it evinces a scanty population; and, by the account which he gives of the farm-houses, and hovels called cottages, this evil is not likely to remedy itself. There is a general disposition to fly from rural occupations, and from the solitude of the country, to "crowded cities and the busy haunts of men." Mischiefs hence arise, which Dr. S. has well pointed out: "The degree of preponderance which towns and manufactures have already acquired over agriculture and the population of the country, threatens the kingdom with a scarcity of bread and other serious evils, to which the accumulation of small ones have (has) greatly contributed." (P. 27.)

The remark which immediately follows places the question respecting large and small farms in as clear and concise a point of view, as we have seen in any of the county reports. "Some have indeed maintained, (Dr. Smith says,) that great farmers bring more to market than small ones, from the same quantity of land, without considering that the small ones maintain so many families at home, as will make up the difference to the public (if indeed there is a difference), and that these families are

* The Scotch acre contains 6150 square yards, the English acre 4840; so that the proportion between them is nearly 5 to 4. In a statute square mile, there are 500 Scotch, or 640 English acres.

employed more innocently and more usefully to the public than those which are supplied from the market.'

Dr. Smith allows, however, that possessions may be too small as well as too large; which, he intimates, is especially the case when lands are let in *run-rig*; a species of tenure with which we are not acquainted in the south of our island, and which he says is nearly synonymous with being in common.

The circumstances of the times have promoted an extension of the military system; which, with respect to the agricultural interest, is attended with an evil that is not sufficiently considered: it tempts a sober, frugal, and industrious race to exchange their virtuous for dissipated habits; and it induces them to migrate from their native soil, to the productiveness of which they contributed. Those who wish to profit by the operation of this system, to increase the size of their farms, will not complain: but, at last, the imperfect produce of the ground will be felt; and we must encourage agricultural population, either by employing more hands on the land already in cultivation, or by taking new farms and inclosures from our common and waste lands.

Rents in Argyleshire are, for arable land, from 2l. to 15s. per acre:—for what is called pasture, from 4s. to 4d. per acre.

It is well known that no *tithes* are paid in Scotland: but, in a section bearing this title, Dr. S. takes occasion to complain of the inadequacy of the fund in lieu of tithes for the maintenance of the clergy; by which their rank in society is sunken, and with it their utility and influence: 'for (he adds) let our vain and new philosophers allege what they will, there can be no national prosperity, of any duration, without religion; and there can be no religion without a respectable clergy, nor a respectable clergy without a decent maintenance being annexed to the office.' (P. 43.)—'If this be not done, the men who should fill the office will naturally betake themselves to other employments, and their place will be supplied by such as ought to have neither lot nor part in this matter.' (P. 45.)

There is also a section entitled *Poor Rates*, though no such assessment exists in Scotland: but the author recommends that something of this kind should be adopted; or rather he advises the establishment of benefit clubs.

Under the head of *Expences*, we find the following account of the mode of living in Argyleshire: which will not be deemed very luxurious by the inhabitants of South Britain:

'The small farmers, for nine or ten months in the year, make generally two, and sometimes three meals a-day of potatoes, with herrings or milk. Such as can afford it, salt a cow in winter, and kill

kill a sheep or two in harvest. Oatmeal pottage, or oatmeal jelly (*sowens*), make commonly the third meal a-day, with milk; and oaten or bear bread, when potatoes fail, supply the place. In Kintyre, it is customary to take a little thin pottage, or a little bread and milk, before they begin work in the morning; and after dinner, should it be even potatoes and herring, or flesh and broth, they have commonly a little bread and milk, by way of desert or supplement*.

—'With all this economy, few farmers expect or accomplish more than to make their outlays (outgoings) and returns balance at the year's end.'

This is no encouraging statement for the Argyleshire agriculturist; yet, by the account of *implements*, it seems that agriculture is there improving.—After having remarked the great disproportion between the heath and hill and the arable land, as stated at the beginning of this article, we can easily credit Dr. S. when he tells us that the 'general appearance of the country is naked and open.'

Fallowing is scarcely known; and examples of a proper rotation of crops are rare.—The kind of grain raised in the greatest quantity in this county is oats; yet it is not equal to the consumption; and about 25,000 bolls of oatmeal are yearly imported. Potatoes are termed *the stuff of bread*, and the disease called the *curl* has not yet seized those of this county. The culture of *flax* is recommended as suited to the climate. *Wheat* is not cultivated; and the reason assigned is, that 'the demand for *bear* or *big*, (improperly called barley,) to make whisky, is greater than even that for bread; and the distillers have a brisker trade and more ready cash than the bakers.' *Barley* is a grain scarcely known in Argyleshire, and the farmers deal but little in *artificial grasses*.—Their imperfect method of *hay-making* may be inferred from Dr. S.'s direction, 'to cut it with a hay-knife or hay-spade, and not to pull it.' Cows are recommended to be *curried*, like horses.

When it is considered that most of our best gardeners are Scotchmen, the reader will be surprized to find that the people of this county are so far behind us in gardening; and that there is scarcely any thing which deserves the name of an *orchard* in Argyleshire: though a Scotchman, writing from Richmond in Surrey, declares that 'he had experienced greater heat in the glens of Argyleshire than he felt in the summer of 1793 in England, and that there are vast numbers of tracts in the West Highlands of Scotland that would ripen apples and pears, better than any in the low countries of the kingdom.' This is a statement which ought to induce the people of this

* When the author afterward laments the consumption of whisky, we are prevented from supposing that these sons of the plough are mere *milkops*.

shire to plant orchards; and they should not less attend to what the reporter advances on the importance of raising coppice wood and forest timber.

The chapter on *Improvements*, as consisting of *draining and burning—manuring*—weeding†—and watering*, contains many observations and directions to which the Northern agriculturist, if he consults his interest, will certainly attend: but on these points it will be unnecessary for us to enlarge.

Under the head of *Live Stock*, we have an account of the Argyleshire breed of cattle: together with a description of the process of making butter and cheese. Dr. Smith recommends the native white-faced breed of sheep, in preference to the Linton or black-faced kind; being persuaded that they will prove a more valuable kind of stock, not only than these latter, but even than the Cheviot breed. He complains that new and formerly unknown diseases have already been introduced into the county by a foreign breed; while the farmers would run no risk by endeavouring to improve their own. The mode of smearing or salving the sheep with tar and butter in October, though a general practice, is not mentioned by this reporter as necessary; and he is of opinion that hereafter it will be abandoned.

Goats, which are said to have abounded in this county, are now almost banished: but Dr. S. thinks that they are useful animals, well adapted to the soil and climate; and that it will be a loss if the species be allowed to perish. 'It is liable to no disease; it finds its food where no other animal is able to travel; its milk, of which it gives a large quantity, is medicinal, and makes excellent cheese. Its flesh is nourishing, and much recommended for many ailments. Its tallow is considerable, and its skin also valuable.' This enumeration of the good qualities of the goat, if it should not restore him to perfect favour, may at least so far diminish the prejudice against him, as to prevent his being quite discarded. 'In Northumberland, they have generally a few of them mixed with the sheep, for the health of the flock; as it is known they eat, with safety, plants which to other animals would be poison.'

A prejudice against *Pork* prevailed till lately among Highlanders: but this is giving way, and *swine* are coming into repute. Dr. Smith rejoices at this circumstance, and very judiciously recommends the black Chinese breed as the best for a poor man, being most easily fattened.

* Here Dr. S. reminds his countrymen of their homely proverb, "*Muck is the mother of the meal-chest.*"

† Here another proverb is repeated: "*One year's seeding is seven years weeding.*"

Not only *horses*, but also *rabbits*, *poultry*, *pigeons*, and *bees*, are noticed in this chapter.

The most interesting articles in the chapter entitled *Political Economy* are *Manufactures*, *Poor*, and *Population*. The former appear to have made little progress; and as to the fisheries, Dr. S. tells us, they can never thrive till the salt-laws are altered. As to the *Poor*, they are supported by begging, and by the weekly collections at the church; which are not considerable. No legal provision is made for them. Respecting the *Population* of Argyleshire, though Dr. Smith does not suppose that it is so great now as it was in antient times, (and the facts which he adduces corroborate his opinion,) he represents it as greater now than it was 40 years ago. It appears in 1755 to have been 61,575, and in 1795 to have increased to 74,471. As the extent of the county is 3800 square miles, this allows nearly, but not quite, 20 persons to each square mile. No one can be more deeply impressed with a sense of the importance of attending to every circumstance which is favourable to the population of a country, than Dr. Smith; and it may be presumed that so sensible a writer will not reason and expostulate on this and other topics altogether in vain. Improvements may be suggested, but without hands they cannot be effected.—In the last place, the Doctor enumerates, among the obstacles to the prosperity of the county, though not peculiar to it, the unhappy frequency of our wars; each of which drains Argyleshire of between 3000 and 4000 of its most effective hands.

On the whole, we perceive that a benevolent mind pervades this work; and, although it may betray some defects, it is a proof of the reporter's diligence and ability.

ART. V. *Men and Manners.* By Francis Lathom. 12mo. 4 Vols. 14s. sewed. Wright, &c. 1799.

THE title of this production leads us to examine the *dramatis persona* as a painter examines the several pictures of a collected groupe of figures, representing a variety of characters; and, according to this mode of examination, we shall pass our strictures on the *pictures* exhibited on this canvas. The most prominent figure of the piece is Sir Gilbert Oxmondeley; who, from having been born plain Gilbert Oxmondeley, and been bred to the trade of a glover and hosier in Cheapside, is turned round on the sportive wheel of fortune, and thrown into the rank of a baronet, with the appendage of four thousand pounds in a year. Such a change in circumstances naturally produces a change of manners; which are well described in the author's own words:

‘ The

'The baronet, as is natural to suppose, in a man undergoing so sudden a change of circumstances, lost what few good qualities he had ever possessed, in such vicious ones, as he had never before dreamt of;—his sentiments and manners underwent as speedy a metamorphose, as the house and furniture of Goody Baucis and her good man Philemon. The counter-bow and smirk, with the indiscriminately applied sentences of, "much obliged to your ladyship,"—"thank you, sir," were converted into a stiff gait and sneer at the little world below him, with a continual grumbling cough in his throat, which seemed to say, "dam'me, don't you know who I am?"

This is good painting.—Miss Eliza, Sir Gilbert's daughter, has educated herself principally by the assistance of novels, and consequently marries the first man who asks the honor of her fair hand, reduces herself to poverty, and flies from her creditors to the stage.—This, though not an original, is a good copy.—The family of the Hutchinbuncks is well executed; and the Dutch boy, or man in miniature, is *alive*:—but the foundling Rachel is too formal, sententious, and affected, for a country girl bred up in a parsonage-house with the good simple Mr. Morden: the *colours* are therefore not natural.

Jonathan Parkinson, the quaker and no quaker, (being only so called by the *world* because he wore plain clothes and a flat crown'd hat, lest he should offend the memory of his ancestors; and who retained also for the same reason the peculiarity of that stiff phraseology used by the sect,) forms the picture which pleases us the least in the piece. It *may be* that, as Jonathan Parkinson is not friendly to our court of criticism, he must allow for our being a little *piqued* that a man, who is exalted by the liberality of his sentiments, should so set his face against poor Reviewers as to refuse all acquaintance with us, and to *judge us* severely without knowing us: for Jonathan's own words are, on being presented by a bookseller with two *new Reviews*,—"I do thank thee, friend, for thy civility, but I do never read THOSE BOOKS."—Now human creatures are not always good Christians, and so disposed to forgive as they ought to be; it may therefore be considered as a venial sin, if we exult a little over the fallible virtue of this *preacher* and *pattern of moral rectitude*; and if we *smile* when we see him peeping over the shoulder of the frail Miss Darlington, who presents him with two illegitimate pledges of an illicit amour. The *costume* of this *portrait* is ill preserved.

The dashing Cranberry, the cold-blooded Alfred, the gamester Lady Paragon, the swindler Blackman, the travell'd Sir Bauble, and many others, are rather daubings than good pictures;—the *colours* are unnatural.—We give the following chapter as a specimen of the work:

Improvements suggested.

‘ In the evening, a clod-pole, who had been employed by Miss Oxmondeley to carry Emily’s letter to her brother, returned with the answer; and having received his promised reward from the hand of Eliza, she flew with the letter to Emily, for whom it was directed.

‘ It contained the wished-for information, that the beaux, as Eliza called them, were highly flattered by the invitation, and would be at Fairford early in the morning.

“ Dear me,” said Emily, “ what will Sir Gilbert say to their coming so soon in the morning?”

“ Oh,” said Miss Oxmondeley, “ I’ll tell him they come early on purpose to see the lions.”

“ Dear me,” returned Emily, “ why you have no lions here, have you?”

‘ When Miss Oxmondeley could suppress her laughter sufficiently to explain herself, Emily much approved her friend’s intention; but Rachel said she feared it was a hazardous plan, as she hardly imagined the gentlemen would investigate the curiosities of Fairford with the leisure or attention Sir Gilbert would expect, from the account she had just given him of their taste.

“ Oh!” replied Eliza, “ leave that to me, I know every step my father takes in a morning, and will lead them a different way from that I know he has taken; and when we meet, which I’ll contrive shan’t be till dinner, I’ll tell him, I have been forced to show them all about myself, as I could not find him.”

“ But should the deceit be discovered”—said Rachel.

“ I’ll contrive some excuse, I warrant me, to bring us off,” said Miss Oxmondeley.

“ And if it should not”—continued Rachel hesitatingly.

“ Why all the better,” replied Eliza, insensible to the very gentle reproof Rachel ventured to give to her improper conduct.

“ I was quite frightened at dinner,” said Emily, “ when you told your papa about their coming.”

“ Oh, I know how to cuff him over,” replied Eliza, half ashamed she did not possess absolute dominion over her father.

“ And now he does not know Alfred is to be here,” returned Emily.

“ I have a trick to introduce him with,” replied Eliza.

“ I think you run great risks, Miss Oxmondeley,” said Rachel, “ of incurring Sir Gilbert’s displeasure, to obtain a gratification which the anxiety that its purchase occasions must, in my opinion, in a great measure outweigh.”

“ Oh! that’s half the pleasure,” returned Miss Oxmondeley; “ it is so romantic to impose on a father, and so delightful to plan schemes and stratagems for seeing the pretty fellows.”

‘ Rachel durst admonish no farther, on so slight an acquaintance, with one acknowledged by the world so far her superior in rank, and remained silent. Emily Morden, who never thought for herself, was always of the opinion of the last speaker.

‘ On

On the succeeding day, Sir Gilbert, as was his usual custom, walked into his grounds immediately after breakfast; he had strolled nearly the round, had rested once in the hermitage, and stopped twice to admire the Chinese temple, (his favorite building, because it had cost the largest sum in erecting,) when proceeding, he arrived within a few paces of the ruin, which represented the angle of a gothic building, with a dilapidated window supported between two mouldering pillars; as he stood viewing the venerable structure, a voice behind it called out "Here's at your cock robin," and immediately a large stone flew over his head.

"Hollo! hollo!" exclaimed the astonished baronet.

"Hollo! hollo!" repeated a voice.

"What's here, an echo?" cried another speaker. "Hollo! hollo! again."

The baronet was mean while rapidly approaching, and distinctly heard his daughter say, "Oh Lud a mercy, it's papa, I dare say! I hope he did not see us."

"I'll climb up these stones and peep," said the first voice.

In a few seconds, a face appeared through the frame-work of the window; and in less than an instant the fragment of antiquity, in reality no more firmly built than it was really meant to appear, yielded to the weight imposed upon it, crumbled, fell, and carried with it to the ground the person in question.

The scene fallen, the actors behind it became conspicuous; and Miss Oxmondeley, Mr. Cranberry, and Rachel, appeared standing in various attitudes of terror and surprise—Miss Emily and Alfred sitting on the grass, at a short distance from the scene of action, and John Morden lying prostrate amongst the ruined ruins.

"Here's a pretty spot of work!" cried the baronet, "the mouldering walls of my abbey all in ruins!—How the devil came you to climb up it, you imp of vexation?"

"Have you hurt yourself," said Eliza, advancing to John.

"Oh, no!" said he, rising gently, while he held one hand on his back, and rubbed his left knee with the other.

"If you had broken your neck, I should not have pitied you," cried the baronet.

"If he had," returned Eliza, "it would have signified little to him, whether you had or not—your compassion would be of much more consequence to him now, for I'm sure he's hurt."

"Here's at your cock Robin, indeed!" exclaimed Sir Gilbert, settling the flaps of his waistcoat with both his hands, and moving about his fingers in painful agitation.

"Give me leave to introduce Mr. Cranberry to you, papa."

Cranberry bowed, scraped, muttered a great deal, and said nothing.

"How do you do, sir?" said Sir Gilbert impatiently.—"If it had been my Chinese temple, instead of this ruin, I'd have broken your neck for you, myself, puppy!" he continued, turning to John.

"Is there a Chinese temple in these gardens?" asked Cranberry with affected eagerness and pleasure.

"Yes

"Yes sir, yes sir," answered Sir Gilbert, placidity returning to his brow.

Cranberry had already received his cue from Eliza, and now turning quickly round to Rachel, exclaimed, "Oh, you cruel creature, not to point it out to me, when you know my partiality for those buildings!"

John Morden, advancing to Sir Gilbert, said, "I beg pardon, Sir Gilbert, but I thought those mock ruins had always been built stronger."

"Well, well," said the baronet, "it is some consolation that I can afford to build another."

"If I might be allowed to speak," said Cranberry, "I think it gives the idea it was meant to convey much more forcibly in its present state than it did before."

"Indeed!" replied the baronet, "surely not:" he gave a moment's pause to observation, then added, "let me stand where you do a minute, sir, if you please."

Eliza ran up to her father, and peeping over his shoulder, "Oh, decidedly, decidedly," she cried.

"Decidedly, what?" asked the baronet.

"More mutilated, papa," answered she.

"Oh, infinitely more ruinous and dilapidated," added Cranberry.

"But my robin is lost," said Sir Gilbert, with a sigh; "I don't like that."

"Ay, flown away," cried John, still holding his knee; "it would have been a good thing for me, if I could have taken wing like it:" a wink to Eliza and Cranberry followed this sentence.

"Why, did you really think it was alive?" asked the baronet, with pleasure sparkling in his eyes.

"Why, was it not?" said John, with affected surprise.

"Ha! ha! ha!" exclaimed Sir Gilbert, unable to contain his extacy; "you were really taken in then, ha! ha! ha! you are not the first that has been taken in about that robin."

"No, nor the last neither," said Eliza, looking archly at her companions.

"No, no, no," returned the baronet; "I can't help laughing though at the thoughts of it;—I can easily have the ruin mended, and another bird put up."

"Besides you can vary your subject, and the deception will have the better effect," remarked Cranberry.

"True, sir, true, so it will; those that have seen it before, will think the robin has flown away, indeed," returned the baronet.

"But the Chinese temple, Sir Gilbert"—

"I'm on the road to it now," answered the exulting baronet; "walk you behind Eliza," continued he, "you have seen it often enough, and it is not worth a pin, without you have a clear view of it breaking upon you from amongst the trees;—walk on, sir, walk on, the path will lead you to it;" and on they moved, Eliza and John rejoicing in the happy change John's manœuvre had worked on the baronet's temper.

We are sorry that we have not been more entertained with the whole of this novel: but we readily acknowledge that we have occasionally received pleasure from the comic powers of Mr. Lathom; and that we have met with scenes not unworthy of the drama, where the ridicule is well painted which results from pride, ostentation, and vanity, grafted on low birth, mean education, and defective intellects. Prolivity is the great fault of this author, and it is indeed too common an error. It is to be wished that writers of all descriptions would study the *multum in parvo*, and the happy art of compressing. *How to begin*, and *how to finish*, are points of difficulty: but *when to finish* requires the most resolution.

ART. VI. *Fragments of Scottish History*. 4to. pp. 260. 1l. 1s. Boards. Edinburgh. 1798. London, sold by White.

IN this collection, the only article of original composition is a tract entitled 'Desultory Reflections on the State of Antient Scotland.' It is certainly a very curious performance, and one to which the epithet '*Desultory*' is applied with peculiar propriety; since it contains an amazing series of observations and anecdotes, drawn from very various and remote sources, and applied indiscriminately to illustrate topics which are unconnected except by the juxta-position which the author gives to them. The plan and manner of this essay bear some resemblance to those of the well-known "Sketches" of the author's countryman, Lord Kames; and like them perhaps it rather displays the extensive reading of the author, than proves that he has well digested the facts which he has accumulated; or that the conclusions which he draws from them are those of a sound and logical judgment. A considerable degree of entertainment, however, this tract will undoubtedly afford; and probably not less to the learned than to the uninformed reader: since it will call to his recollection, if it does not communicate, a great variety of matter derived partly from antient and classic authors, but principally from the voyages and travels of this and the last century. Even those, indeed, to whom the antient history of Scotland may not have been an object of curiosity or of study, may, fearless, venture on the perusal of this essay; which, though professing to treat exclusively on that point, introduces a number of general facts and observations, connected with the early state and progress of society. The subjects introduced, however, are not *treated*—they are but lightly *touched*—by this rapid writer; who, after having hinted them in sentences extremely abrupt, consisting generally of only one clause, or two, and which constitute what may be called a

snapping

snapping style, leaves them to the reader's own reflection, and flies away in quest of new matter. In proof and illustration of these remarks, we copy his account of the antient state of women in Scotland :

'The employments of the Northern females were rude, and their state an abject subjection to the men. We read of the loom, and the pencil of the East : but the Northern women filled the drinking horns, and followed the men to battle. The manners of nations are most varied in the treatment of their females. A writer of reputation thinks their station was eminent in the North, and their employments more befitting the modern ideas of feminine delicacy. But it is difficult to reconcile our notions of a barbarous people, and respect for females. In our own days, we see exactly the reverse. I know well what is said of the Lycians, the Libyans, the Garrows, the Natches, and some North American nations : but this is insufficient to prove a general character. There is, in all history, a remarkable contradiction here. One would think the condition of the females was servile ; yet the functions they discharged, would prompt us to imagine it held importance. No Egyptian woman was permitted to be a priestess : but the Greeks and Romans bestowed this rank upon them. They dispensed the mysteries of the oracles ; and, at Rome, had a temple, which it was death for a man to enter. They were the priestesses and prophetesses of the ruder nations ; and the names of Geirid, Keidr, and Thorbiorg, are famous in the North. Heraclides ascribes an honourable office to the Persian women : " Three hundred watch the king by night, singing, and playing upon the harp." Yet we are told, the Persian king " governed the queen like a master." The Egyptians, according to Diodorus, allowed a queen more authority than a king. Some of the Germans brought portions to their wives, as well as some of the antient nations in Spain.—The Grecian women were certainly under restraint. An Athenian of rank " chides his wife for wearing high-heeled shoes, and painting her face : " He tells her, that " standing at her loom would improve her mien ; and baking, or such menial occupations, would give a preferable glow to her complexion."—The condition of the Roman women is uncertain. They seem, at one period, to have lived in the most unbounded licentiousness. Men and women promiscuously frequented the public baths, until the reign of Hadrian.—In the more early ages, a husband could put his wife to death for adultery, or for being intoxicated. In later times there was a law enacted—" *Ne questum corpore faceret, cui avus, aut pater, aut maritus, eques Romanus, fuisset.*" The contrast is remarkable.—But the limitations of female liberty, existing in most nations, is [are] sufficient to decide their state. The antient Eastern nations exposed their women in public markets for sale ; and there the men purchased them indiscriminately for slaves or wives. The infidelity of the wife has always been more severely punished, than that of the husband. In most cases, it was death ; which is still inflicted among the savage nations, and the modern Tartars. The husband is the executioner.—

' A cele-

"A celebrated author, who attained the utmost limits of ecclesiastical dignity, affirms, the Scottish women were amorous; and that kisses were less valued in Scotland, than touching the hand was in Italy. This might be true. Modesty is an acquired idea; and no female bears the burden of chastity, when an opportunity offers to lay it down. Few savage females are reserved.—But I do not know that the Northern nations are prone to love: which rather seems a characteristic of the warmer regions. Yet, were we ignorant of the influence of the church, perhaps we might acquiesce with his learned Holiness: for the legislature has, with singular care, declared the pain of fornication to be, "shaving the head, imprisonment, immersion thrice in the deepest and dirtiest pool of water in the town or parish, and banishment from these for ever." *O tempora, O mores!* How different, at one period, the customs of the neighbouring countries! Robert Duke of Normandy, constituted one Baldric *castus meretricum publice venalium*. And over the doors of a palace belonging to Cardinal Wolsey, was inscribed, "*Domus meretricum Domini Cardinalis*." The *marescallus meretricum* was an officer under the Crown.—We must acknowledge, however, that a passion for celibacy seems not to have affected the Scottish females. Of about 200 religious houses, only 22 were nunneries; and, we are told, the morals of the nuns in some, occasioned their suppression.—

"*Casta igitur nulla est: caste sunt mille: quid ergo
Casta facit? non dat: non tamen illa negat.*"

MARTIAL, Ep. iv. 71.

—It is said, that in England, the nuns were as numerous as the monks. There was an hermaphrodite order, where monks and nuns lived under the same roof. There were 1100 nuns of this order, and only 800 monks. We had, in Scotland, but one similar convent.

'Describing the state of ancient Scotland, Boyce says, the women were nearly as strong as the men. "Al rank madynis, and wyffis, gif thay war nocht with child, yeid als weile to battel as the men." Boyce is not to be trusted; and did I mean to write a history of national manners, I might search for more authentic authorities. However, he may be right. The females of many nations have been militant, both in the East, and in the West. No one is ignorant of Semiramis, Artemisia, Zenobia, or Boadicea. The Sææ, the Æthiopians, the Triballi, had, according to Damascenus, four ranks in their armies; the last of women, to recal the fugitives. This, if true, might be a reason why the character of Amazons is ascribed to some nations. The German women went to battle—*cibosque et hortamina perantibus gestant*. The same was practised in Britain, that they might witness the valour of their husbands. And there is reason to believe, that, at a later period, the women of England partook this Amazonian amusement.'

Besides these 'Desultory Reflections,' the reader will find several curious copies of antient grants, catalogues, letters, &c.—the Diary of Robert Birrel, including all the interval between

1532 and 1605; and narratives of two expeditions into Scotland, one by the Earl of Hertford in 1544; and the other by the Duke of Somerset in 1547. The Diary is an indiscriminate and naked detail of every public incident which came within the writer's knowledge or hearsay, and can be interesting only as far as it conveys an idea of the temper and sentiments of the age in which it was written, or as it serves to illustrate its history. In some instances, it does effect this purpose. — A short extract will suffice to shew its style and character:

‘ The 23 of Januarii, James Steuarte Earle of Murray, the good Regent of Scotland, wes slaine in Linlithgow, by James Hamiltone of Boduel Haughe, quho shote the said Regent with a gun out at ane window, and presently thereafter fled out at ye backsyde, and leaped one a verey good hors, which the Hamiltons had ready waiting for him; and, being followed speedily, after yat spure and vande had failed him, he drew forth hes dagger, and strooke hes hors behind, quhilk caused the hors to leape a verey brode stanke; by quhilk meines he escaipit, and gat away frome all ye rest of the horses.

‘ The 27 day of Januarii, Mathew Steuarte Earle of Lennox, wes proclaimit Regent, and ye Earle of Mortone hes Lieutenant. This Mathew Earle of Lennox, halding ane Parliament at Striveling, quher the zounge King was present, he made ane oratione to the haill nobility, being sitting in ye Parliament. Ye chyld King looking upward to ye rooffe of the hous, he saw ane holl throughe the sclaitting; he said, I think there is ane holl in this Parliament; sua that shortly thereafter hes Maiestie's vords came true.’

The two concluding tracts, relating to the expeditions into Scotland, are described by the editor in his preface as scarce; — they probably are so: — but we doubt whether they will be considered as valuable in proportion as they are rare, except by those who meditate a new history of Scotland.

ART. VII. *Reports respecting the Distilleries in Scotland*, by Committees of the Honourable the House of Commons, appointed in 1798 and 1799; the Right Hon. Sylvester Douglas in the Chair. 8vo. pp. 150. 3s. 6d. sewed. Wright. 1799.

THE great object of the two committees, by whom these reports were made, was to inquire into the ‘best mode of levying and collecting the duties upon the distillation of corn spirits in Scotland.’ On this discussion, they have entered with a degree of zeal and industry, fully commensurate to the magnitude and importance of the subject; and they have collected a mass of very interesting information, which is here arranged with an equal regard to order and taste, and communicated in a style of great neatness and accuracy. The reports refer to an Appendix, which contains the materials whence this information

information was drawn, namely, minutes of the *vivâ voce* evidence of persons examined by the Committees, and several written documents communicated by men who were skilled in the theory and practice of distillation. Of this Appendix, a table only of the contents is annexed to these printed Reports.

The prescribed duty of the Committees did not leave them free to enter into the discussion, how far, in a moral and political point of view, the distillery should be encouraged or depressed; and their task being merely to consider the best mode of collecting the revenue which it was rated to produce, they have touched only incidentally on the other more important inquiry. As far as they do advert to it, however, they by no means venture to recommend a permanent prohibition of this manufacture; and they appear to entertain great doubts on the practicability of its suppression, even if it were wise to attempt it. The first Committee declare that it is not contended by any person that the distillation of spirits should be totally prohibited: but they admit that it is wise, in a political as well as a financial view, to impose such a duty on that manufactory, as will raise the price to the consumer high enough to prevent the excessive use of it by the poor; to which excess, indisputably more than to any quality which a particular mode of manufacture may extract from the grain, and leave mixed with the spirits, must be imputed their ill consequences to health and morality. Whether the law ought to go farther than this, they think, may be well doubted.

The second Committee decline to give any decisive opinion on the question, Whether or not the morals and health of the people would be promoted by a total suppression of the use of spirits? because, in their judgment, though the measure were useful, it is impracticable:—for, say they,

‘ In the first place, the nature of the thing, the multiplicity of evidence of what has taken place in Scotland in regard to the unlicensed manufactories at home, and the illicit introduction from abroad of distilled spirits, in defiance of the strictest legislative prohibitions, and of whatever exertions may have been used both by the revenue officers and the magistrate to give them effect, sufficiently evince that an effectual suppression of the total use of spirits, at least by the common people of that country, is an object which the wisest and best concerted plan or statute will never be able to accomplish.’

In solving the very difficult problem prescribed to them by the House, the Committee were principally occupied in ascertaining which of two great systems that had successively governed the collection of the duties on the distillery, viz. the LICENCE system and the SURVEY system, was the least objec-

tionable ; or whether there might not be some combination of the two, which should unite more of the advantages and exclude more of the defects than could ever be united or excluded by either of them separately. The *SURVEY* system was the first method adopted ; and it prevailed, from the respective establishments of this revenue in both parts of the island, down to the year 1784.—It still continues in England, and consists in an actual reckoning and account taken by the revenue officer, of every individual gallon of spirits which the manufacturer in reality produces ; at least as far as the officer is able to take such account. The *LICENCE* system was introduced by law in 1784 and 1785 into the Highlands, and in 1786 was fully established throughout Scotland, and continued with a few variations down to the middle of the last summer. This system aims at collecting the revenue on spirits by calculating, *à priori*, the quantity which the distiller might produce in a given time, having his choice of the utmost attainable advantages from quality of grain, from command of fuel, water, &c. and from the opportunity of using the best adapted still as to size, form, &c. and the best other necessary apparatus. The duty chargeable on such quantity of spirits as the distiller might thus produce, he is made to pay in advance ; and on this payment he gets a *licence* to carry on his business during that given time, without farther charge or hindrance from the revenue officer.

Each of these modes, it appears, has been found liable to very great objections. The mode by *survey* is principally defective by leaving it frequently in the power of the manufacturer to defraud the revenue, and injure the public, by dishonest concealment ; notwithstanding the utmost vigilance of the officer. The *licence* system, though promising great advantages from the secure receipt of the whole licence duty, without risk and almost without expence, and from leaving the distiller in the free and comfortable exercise of his calling, undisturbed by the intrusion of an excise officer, yet was not long in use before a fact began to appear which, resulting from the operation of the system itself, soon placed its imperfection in a very striking light. This fact is a *rapidity of distillation* far beyond what had ever been effected in practice, or conceived in theory. When this system was first adopted, the legislature had been taught to believe that the process of distillation could not be completed in less than 24 hours. Those of our readers who are unacquainted with the modern improvements in that art will be perhaps astonished to learn that, instead of 24 *hours*, not more than *five*, probably not more than *three* MINUTES are now required for the complete process of distillation ! The

Committee

Committee themselves seem to have received this information with surprise, and perhaps with some incredulity :

‘ Last year (say the second Committee) it was thought hardly to deserve credit, when an excise officer stated the fact of a still being charged and discharged (according to his own personal observation) once in every eight minutes, and (according to information which he believed) once in every five minutes.

‘ We have now information of a distiller, who several months ago, by means of a new invention, had made such a farther progress as to have been able to charge and discharge his wash-still in less than three minutes, and who since, by an apparatus yet farther improved, has found that he can work at the rate of once in every $2\frac{1}{2}$ minutes ; and we have the opinion of a gentleman of great science and knowledge in the principles of distillation, that even that is not the last attainable limit of rapidity. These facts excite surprise, accompanied with some suspicion of error or inaccuracy.

‘ But if there is no mistake in the statements of the distiller in question, what ordinary imagination can still stretch beyond his improvements and conceive it possible, if desirable, that this art should be pushed on even beyond that boundary ?—that wash, say to the amount of 16 gallons, should, in the ordinary course of an extensive trade, be transfused into a still, the low wines evaporated from it, and the spent wash run off, so as to leave the still ready for the reception of the next charge, in a space of time shorter than the 22d part of an hour ;—and that this may be repeated at the same rate the whole year, or more than 105,600 times in two hundred days *. If there is any where in this business a conceivable *ultimatum*, where is the fancy to place it ? Are we to proceed in its pursuit to a fractional part of a second, and still to expect the charge of the vessel with cold wash, which is to be raised throughout its whole mass to the heat of the boiling point, the evaporation of the spirit, and the effusion of the spent wash, to go on in succession, and yet all within that space or rather point of time, without imminent danger every moment of being stopped in our career by the sudden destruction of the apparatus, and even of the workmen, and the instantaneous dissipation of that spirit in the expanse of the atmosphere, which one would, *à priori*, suppose no human art could, under such circumstances, retain within the enclosure of any vessel, and force, as it were in the very instant of its formation, at once losing and resuming its liquidity, to proceed forwards in its discharge, in that form, along the channel of the worm ?

This immense and almost incredible rapidity of distillation, the result of a system which drove the distiller to work *against time*, has been found to produce many more evils than the mere subtraction of duty from the revenue :—it is said to create a waste not only of fuel but of grain ; a waste by which the

* This is the distiller's year if he works only 300 days ; and 1-3d of his licensed time, during that period, is employed in doubling.

public may be in certain cases most materially injured. It also deteriorates the quality of the spirit, and renders it at once worse flavoured and less wholesome. Finally, by enabling the wealthy and expert distiller to undersell the lower class of his brethren, who have not either apparatus or skill to attain the rapidity of his process, it tends to throw the whole business into the hands of a few. Of these and other inconveniences, the ultimate effects of the licence system, and of the different modes of collecting the spirit duties in the High and Lowlands which it has occasioned, the Committee enter into a very minute and laborious investigation, in which our limits will not permit us to follow them. We must therefore refer the reader, who wishes to obtain an accurate knowledge of the present state of the distillery laws, of the distillery itself in the Lowlands and Highlands of Scotland, and of the different complaints of the trade in these districts, to the reports themselves; in which we assure him he will find abundant information on those topics. We cannot, however, close this article without laying before our readers the outline of a system traced by the Committee, as a substitute for both the systems of which they have detailed the defects. It is one which, if properly filled up, they hope may be found to answer, better than either of the two modes which have already been tried, the joint purposes of the revenue, the manufacturer, and the farmer. It is, in fact, a combination of the *licence* system with that of *survey*, which promises, in a great measure, to unite the advantages of both, by making each corrective of the other :

‘ 1st, In the first place, the assessment of a considerable portion of the whole duty should continue to be made by licence, sufficient in its proportion at all events to secure, by anticipated payments and otherwise, a liquidated and certain sum from every legal distiller.

‘ 2d. The rest of the duty should be considered as commencing at the point where the distiller shall be found to have worked out his licence, and to be levied according to the surest plan that can be devised by actual or presumptive account, or both, of the full quantity of spirits produced. The exact amount of the licence duty will not perhaps be very material ; it should be fixed within the limits of excessive rapidity on the one hand, and the slow work of the ignorant and unexperienced manufacturer on the other.

‘ 3d. The work should be constantly and strictly surveyed all along, and an account kept by the excise officer, and checked and proved by gauge, admeasurement, weighing, ascertainment of strength, &c. by the saccharometer and hydrometer, in the different stages of the manufacture, (but these checks to be so applied as not to interrupt, in a manner injurious to the manufacture, the conduct of the different processes,) and also by returns upon oath, and under the sanction of penalties, by the distiller.

‘ 4th. From

“ 4th. From such survey and checks, the officer should form a regular and progressive account current, between the licence duty and the quantity of produce, according to the rate per gallon which the manufacturer is ultimately to account for.

“ 5th. This account should be balanced frequently, and settled at stated periods; and if the distiller should at any time give notice of an intention of ceasing his work, the balance at the time of such cessation, if in favour of the revenue (*i. e.* if he should appear to have made a greater quantity of spirits than the portion of his licence duty for the time elapsed was sufficient to cover), the amount of the fixed rate of duty on each gallon of the surplus should be immediately paid.

“ 6th. But if it should happen that he should not have worked during the time up to the just apportionment of his licence duty, he should be at liberty to go on; and so *totius quoties* to the end of his licence year.

“ 7th. At the end of such year a general balance should be struck, and the whole surplus duty arising on the general excess of work over the licence, forthwith paid; and no return of duty on the account of any supposed less quantity of work or produce than had been covered by the licence should ever be made, unless in particular cases to be ascertained by law, as fires, bankruptcies, or deaths; the essential principle of licence being to preclude such return of duty, by raising a conclusive presumption to its full extent against the manufacturer, who, if it is not so highly calculated as to exclude the fair latitude and freedom which ought to be allowed him (having embarked voluntarily on that condition), can never complain of such anticipated liquidation of his credit, as to part of the account between him and the excise.”

The perseverance and zeal with which the Committee have explored the complex system of distillery regulations, and collected information from all quarters to elucidate a dark and doubtful subject, entitle them and their learned chairman to public thanks:—but we know not to what motive are to be ascribed the hot anathemas which they pronounce against those who, unauthorized and uncalled, presume to *abtrude* their advice on subjects of this kind; particularly so far as they are connected with criminal law.—“ It is not,” say the Committee, “ given to every presumptuous individual to employ, with safety to the public or credit to himself, his unskilful and sacrilegious hands in the improvement, reparation, or embellishment of the nicest and most delicate part of the Temple of Justice.”—In our humble opinion, it is the privilege and the duty of every Englishman, to suggest to his countrymen whatever improvement he may consider as likely to strengthen or to grace even the most delicate part of that holy fane; and we do not think that he who avails himself of this privilege, and who discharges this duty, with due respect to existing laws and the fixed principles

of the constitution, deserves the epithets of *obtrusive* and *sacrilegious*. If we have a free press, surely every man, on this or any subject, under the restrictions which we have just mentioned, has a right to communicate, without reproach, his sentiments to the public.

ART. VIII. Mr. Tooke's *View of the Russian Empire during the Reign of Catharine the Second, and to the Close of the present Century*.

[Art. concluded from Vol. xxx. p. 369.]

As far upwards as history reaches, Russia has ever been an hereditary empire; and the country has found this succession so salutary, that, after the extinction of the race of Ruric, when Michaila Feodorovitch Romanof ascended the throne in 1613, a charter was executed, confirming it to him and all his posterity: by which act, Russia was in a formal manner declared a real hereditary empire. The crown devolves on either sex without distinction; or at least the male heir has no absolute pre-eminence; and some writers do not scruple to affirm that Russia has always been the happiest, and has always increased in power and consideration, under the reign of a female.—Though the power and authority of the Russian sovereigns be absolute, they have proceeded with great caution in the alterations that have been found necessary not only in privileges, but even respecting usurpations and prescriptive customs, when they have borne but the least resemblance to justice.

There are six orders of knighthood in Russia, the chief of which is that of St. Andrew; the rest are those of St. Catharine, St. Alexander Nefsky, St. George, the Apostle-like Prince Vladimir, and St. Anne of Holstein.

The splendor of the Russian throne, under the late Empress, has perhaps not been equalled in modern times. Mr. Tooke states the following particulars:

‘ The annual expences of the palace were about 1,500,000 rubles. About two hundred tables were spread there twice a-day; and the dishes for them reckoned to amount to 2300 rubles. Every third day the court-purveyor received the money for making this provision. The waste at court was carried to an inexpressible height. The houses or apartments which the empress caused to be fitted up for the persons to whom she gave quarters, contained frequently in furniture more than three times their value. Twelve hundred candles were every day delivered out to the guard, who never consumed one hundred. Every officer about the palace asked for what he would in glasses, decanters, and things of that nature: nothing ever came back; and this happened every day.—The quantity of China-ware that was broke is incredible. Whoever broke any was obliged to
show

show the fragments, but the fragments of four or five pieces would very well serve for a dozen, as he was never required to fit them together.—They whose business it was to clean the silver made rapid fortunes. They had a certain substance, which by rubbing brought off much of the metal; the diminution was apparent to every attentive observer. For the four months which the empress passed at Tzarskoe-Selo, 25 English miles from town, the Neva-water for her own table (as she would take no other) cost her ten thousand rubles annually.

To preserve the internal security of so vast an empire, and to prevent disturbances in the provinces, it is necessary to keep a considerable body of troops, which in Russia are partly regular and partly irregular. The latter, however, are not merely an undisciplined rabble; and the Kozaks have even acquired great military reputation. The whole Russian army consists of about 600,000 men, of whom the author reckons at least 500,000 effective soldiers in active service. They are universally allowed to be more capable of bearing fatigue than any other troops of Europe; and another very great advantage is that their wants are few: on which point Mr. Tooke has the following remark:

‘It is incredible and inconceivable how the common soldier makes his small pay and provision suffice; nay, he even accumulates a little capital, or at least on holidays can afford to treat himself with strong liquors. Not to mention that at times a commander deprives him of some under various prettexts. To satisfy all his wants, he has no more than a yearly pay of six or seven rubles (in garrison it is still less) with his allowance of flour and grits: he buys, in the mess, meat and grease, or oil; clubs with some others to purchase a horse to carry his little pack on long marches; must pay for every button, &c. which he happens to lose; and buy articles of clothes when those allowed him are not sufficient: for neither his two shirts made of cheap linen, nor his boots, for which only 45 kopeeks are allowed him, (and therefore cheap leather is used,) with a pair of shoes, will last the year through with constant use.’

Under the late empress, the Russian Navy consisted of three fleets, entirely distinct from each other; one in the Baltic, another in the Euxine, and a third the galley-fleet. Before the time of Peter I. who was the founder of the Russian navy, they had only small coasting vessels and river craft: armed vessels of any kind were till then strangers in Russia. That monarch, as is well known, travelled into foreign countries, in order to learn a better method of building ships, and to introduce it into his empire.

Russia had formerly only two dock-yards, those of Petersburg and Archangel; to which have lately been added those of Kherson, Cronstadt, and Taurida. At Petersburg and

Cronstadt, the men of war are constructed of oak, transported thither from the regions of Kazan at a great expence : but at Archangel they are built of larch. Though oak-timber is very dear at Petersburg, yet, twenty years ago, enough for a ship of 80 guns might be had for about 10,000 rubles : but at present a line of battle ship of the same rate, fully equipped, would cost at least 80,000 rubles, or more. To this statement, Mr. Tooke subjoins the following note :

' This is only to be understood of the last war : formerly every thing was much cheaper, as the crown employed its own people as workmen ; but since, by reason of the great increase of business, it is obliged to hire strangers, who, according to their capacities, receive wages unheard of at the yards there. It is well known, however, and the empress knew it herself, that great impositions were practised in making the contracts, and in many other particulars. It was this that occasioned Admiral Sir Charles Knowles, while he was in that country, to tell her majesty, that the expence and waste were such, that if her whole empire was made of wood, the people at the yards would find means to consume it all, and ruin her exchequer besides ; adding, that he would engage to fetch all the materials for ship-building from Russia, pay the duties upon them, and deliver to her from England ships completely equipped, at much less cost than they stood her at her own dock-yards. Among other rumours it was said, that a certain chancery had formerly given in a report, that the stores in the magazines were spoilt ; having received the wished-for order to sell them all to the public, certain persons of that office, by means of their confidants, bought all the best at a very low price ; then, by a *podrad* (contract) with the same chancery, struck a bargain for new deliveries, and sent back to the magazines the very materials at a very high price, which they had declared to be spoilt. — Of numberless impositions of the same nature, Catharine II. had too much sagacity not to be aware ; but she did not know rightly how to help herself : she considered them, as things of a like nature have been considered in other countries, as the "cheese-parings" and "candle-ends" of a great buttery. — Many a cable and many an anchor have been lost and supplied in the first port after leaving Cronstadt in a favouring breeze, and many a suit of sails has been blown away in extremely fine weather.'

.. Though some persons have observed that the oak-timber of Russia, and of the North in general, is not so durable as that of other countries, its premature corruption is more probably owing to unskilfulness and neglect, in concurrence with the fresh water of the Neva ; for it is well known to English shipwrights, that oak-timber, felled with proper precaution, and at the right season, and after having been sufficiently dried, and then well soaked in salt-water, will acquire the requisite degree of durability. In Russia, the timber is delivered by contract ; and thus the seller very easily finds means for hoodwinking

winking the receiver. The admiralty, impressed with the importance of the subject, has proposed a premium for the best literary production concerning the duration of ship-timber.

The revenues of the empire (a subject which, notwithstanding its intricacy, is here very ably treated) amount to upwards of 46 millions of rubles.

In no country is such handsome provision made for the learned professions, as in the Russian provinces of Livonia and Esthonia. The clergyman, even on the smallest country-living, has an expensive establishment, and keeps his coach; his situation being equal in all respects, even in privileges and immunities, to that of any nobleman in his neighbourhood. The income of a larger benefice, on a near calculation, may amount to 1500 or 2000, and a moderate one to about 800 rubles*. The Livonian advocates also drive about in carriages, and, after having practised during a few years, purchase a noble demesne. The Physician, or even the Surgeon, (who frequently acts in the capacity of the former,) is rewarded for an ordinary cure by receiving from 30 to 200 rubles. It is common for a wealthy nobleman to make an agreement with his physician, for whom he always sends his own carriage, and whom he pays for the whole attendance 500 rubles. It is usual also for noblemen, or parishes, to keep a physician of their own.—A domestic tutor in the houses of noblemen is at present generally paid 300 or 400 rubles a year; to which, tea, coffee, the use of the carriage, attendance, washing, and even considerable presents, are added.—The music-master at the manor-house usually receives as much.—The author's remarks on the condition of the subjects, from which we have selected these few particulars, form a curious and interesting part of the second volume.

We now proceed to give some account of the *Third* volume; the different sections of which are thus entitled; Erection of viceroyalties; productive industry; manufactures and trade; and of the commerce of Russia. The information conveyed under these several heads is so important and multifarious, that this last volume will probably be found the most satisfactory to general readers.

Before the accession of Catherine II. many governments of the Russian empire were too extensive, and therefore ill administered. Hence the Empress conceived the salutary design of dividing the empire into several more proportionate governments, and these again into so many circles. This was effected by the formation of viceroyalties; and arbitrary authority now everywhere gave way to law and equity. Such a bene-

* The silver ruble is worth about 4s. sterling.

ficial institution was received with joy by the whole nation; which, with little exception, had never till now had a proper juridical constitution.

The state of society, among the inhabitants of so prodigious an expanse of country, must be greatly diversified.—The author reduces the several modifications of social industry to three leading branches; one having for its object the obtaining, the second the improvement, and the third the barter of natural products.—In Russia, numerous tribes supply their physical wants entirely, or principally, by the chase. Furs constitute the most important article of foreign commerce; and of all the animals which are killed for the sake of their skin, the most valuable is the *Sable*; the general consent of all the nations of Europe and of Asia having affixed to it so great a price, that its skin still serves as a standard for the tribute which is paid to the crown by the Siberian nations of hunters.

'This animal (says Mr. Tooke) is found in Asiatic Russia, from the Aleutan islands and from Kamtshatka to the districts of the Petschora and the Kama; but the quality of his skin in this extensive region is extremely different. The finest sables come from Yakutsk and Nertschinsk; and among these are likewise, though rarely, yellow, and extremely seldom white sables. The Kamtshadale sables are the largest of all. Their skin is thick and long-haired, but not very black, therefore most of them go to China, where they are coloured. At the time of the conquest of that country, the sables were there in such extraordinary numbers, that a single hunter could easily bring away sixty, eighty, and more of these animals in a winter, and they were held in such little estimation by the Kamtshadales, that they deemed the more useful skin of a dog to be of twice the value. For ten rubles-worth of iron-ware there was no difficulty in obtaining the value of five or six hundred rubles in sables; and whoever had only followed this trade to Kamtshatka for the space of a year, usually came back with a profit of thirty thousand rubles and upwards. This superfluity, however, since the first Kamtshadale expedition, or since the year 1740, has considerably diminished: but notwithstanding this, that peninsula and the circumjacent territory continues to be the richest in sables, as, on account of the mountains, they cannot be so easily caught, and are prevented by the bordering sea from retiring to other tracts.—The manner in which the sables of Kamtshatka are taken is extremely simple. The Kamtshadales follow the track of this animal in snow-shoes, till they have detected his covert, which is generally a burrow in the earth. As soon as the little creature is aware of his pursuer, he escapes into a hollow tree, which the hunter surrounds with a net, and then either cuts it entirely down, or forces the sable by fire and smoke to abandon his retreat, when he falls into the net and is killed.'

Some of these skins will sell, on the spot, in Siberia, for more than fifty rubles. This beautiful fur is most admired by the

the Chinese, the Persians, and particularly the Turks.—The Fox constitutes another very considerable article of trade in Russia, where four distinct species of this animal are observable, viz. the common, the karagane, the steppe-fox, and the ice-fox: of the last mentioned, incredible numbers are found in the islands of the Frozen Ocean and the Eastern Ocean. The author has inserted a highly entertaining description of that animal from *Steller*; part of which we shall extract:

‘ During my unfortunate abode (says *Steller*) on Behring’s island, I had opportunities more than enough for studying the nature of this animal, far excelling the common fox in impudence, cunning, and roguery. The narrative of the innumerable tricks they played us, might easily vie with Albertus Julius’s history of the apes on the island of Saxenburg. They forced themselves into our habitations by night as well as day, stealing all that they could carry off; even things that were of no use to them, as knives, sticks, our cloaths, &c. They were so inconceivably ingenious as to roll down out casks of provisions several poods in weight, and then steal the meat out of them so ably, that at first we could not bring ourselves to ascribe the theft to them. As we were stripping an animal of his skin, it often happened that we could not avoid stabbing two or three foxes, from their rapacity in tearing the flesh out of our hands. If we buried it ever so carefully, and added stones to the weight of earth that was upon it, they not only found it out, but shoved away the stones, as men would have done, with their shoulders, and lying under them, helped one another with all their might. If, thinking secure it, we put any on the top of a high post in the air, they grubbed up the earth at the bottom, so that the post and all came tumbling down, or one of them clambered up and threw down what was upon it with incredible artifice and dexterity. They watched all our motions, and accompanied us in whatever we were about to do. If the sea threw up an animal of any kind, they devoured it, ere a man of us could come up; to our great disadvantage: and, if they could not consume it all at once, they trailed it away in portions to the mountains, where they buried it under stones before our eyes; running to and fro as long as any thing remained to be conveyed away. While this was doing, others stood upon guard and watched us. If they saw any one coming at a distance, the whole troop combined at once and began digging all together in the sand, till they had so fairly put a beaver, or a sea-bear, under the surface, that not a trace of it was to be seen.—If we laid down as if intending to sleep, they came and smelled at our noses, to try whether we were dead or alive; if we held our breath, they gave such a tug to the nose as if they would bite it off. On our first arrival, they bit off the noses, the fingers and toes of our dead, while we were preparing the grave; and thronged in such a manner about the infirm and the sick, that it was with difficulty we could keep them off. Every morning we saw these audacious animals patrolling about among the sea-lions and sea-bears lying on the strand, smelling at such as were asleep, to discover whether

whether some of them might not be dead; if that happened to be the case, they proceeded to dissect him immediately, and presently after all were at work in dragging the parts away: because the sea-lions of a night, in their sleep, frequently overlay their young, they examine, as if conscious of this circumstance, every morning the whole herd of them, one by one, and immediately drag away the dead cubs from their dams.—When these busy animals could not get hold on what they wanted, for example, the clothes we occasionally put off, they voided their excrements upon it, and then scarcely one of the rest passed by without doing the same. From all circumstances it was clear to us, that they could never before have seen a human being, and that the dread of man is not innate in the brutes, but must be grounded on long experience.*

As the chase furnishes some nations of the Russian empire with the means of subsistence, so there are also tribes which maintain themselves principally, if not wholly, by the Fishery. In the *Frozen Ocean*, and in its bays and rivers, this mode of living is profitable, but attended with many difficulties and perils. The inhabitants of the governments of Archangel and Olonetz principally prosecute their fishery on Spitzbergen and Novaya Zemlia: islands which are completely uninhabited. To winter on them is dangerous to those navigators who have been used to a more genial climate: but the Russian sailors from Archangel and Meseu, who annually visit both these islands, are more able to defy the horrors of that latitude. The principal objects of the sea-chase are whales and morse. The morse-catchers usually take with them a year's provisions, as they are often obliged to pass the winter on board their ships. The only drink which they carry out with them is water. Their greatest peril, at sea, is that of being hemmed in by the driving masses of ice; in which case, the force of the ice beats in the sides of the vessel; and the morse-catchers are then reduced to the dreadful alternative of being buried in the waves on the spot, or of getting on the fields of ice which float at the mercy of the winds, till cold and hunger put an end to their sufferings.—When, however, they have happily reached the place of their destination, they commit themselves to small boats. The morse often leave their native element for a length of time, and frequently collect together on the beach, or on fields of ice, in prodigious numbers:—but they must be approached against the wind, on account of their fine smell; which would otherwise enable them to perceive the hunters at a great distance, and then they would immediately take the water; whereas, in the contrary case, they continue lying undisturbed, though they even see the boat advancing to them. The captors cut off their retreat to the sea, and easily pierce them with pikes: but the conflict with these animals is

their own element is more dangerous.—The author mentions several other particulars, which we must omit.

Besides these marine animals, the Frozen Ocean teems with the *narwhall*, the *pott-fish* (from whose brain, spermaceti is prepared), the *sea-dog*, *dolphin*, *sea-hog*, *hay-fish*, *sea-cow*, the *sea-bear*, the *sea-lion*, the *sea-otter*, and many others; which animals are caught for the sake either of their skin or their blubber. The manners of the sea-bears are so peculiar and extraordinary, that the following account of them would be deemed a fiction, were it not (says Mr. T.) authenticated by the testimony of a sagacious and learned observer :

‘ The affection of the mother for her young is exceedingly great; and they, in return, endeavour to divert her by various kinds of frolicsome play. On seeing these gambols, it seems as if they were exercising feats of wrestling; one striving to give the other a fall; and if the father comes up growling, he drives the wrestlers asunder, coaxes the conqueror, and even tries himself to throw him to the ground: the greater the resistance shewn by the latter, the more he gains the love of the parents, to whom, on the other hand, their slothful or timid children, appear to give but little joy. Though polygamy prevails among the sea-bears, and some of them have as many as fifty wives, yet every one watches over his offspring with uncommon jealousy, and is excessively furious if a stranger come too near them. Even when they lie by thousands on the beach, they are always divided family-wise into companies, and in like manner they swim together in the ocean. The aged, who no longer have any wives, live solitary, and are of all the most grim; these frequently pass a whole month on the shore in sleep, without taking any food; but whatever approaches them, whether man or beast, they fall upon with the most outrageous fury. The sea-bears at times wage bloody wars together, the usual ground of hostility being either the females, or a good couching-place. When two are contending against one, others come up to assist the weaker party; and during the combat, the swimming spectators raise their heads above the water, and calmly look on for a length of time, till they also find a motive for mingling in the fight. Sometimes these conflicting armies cover a tract on the shore of two or three versts, and all the air resounds with their dreadful yells and growlings. It often happens that the combatants make an armistice for an hour to recreate their forces, during which they lie beside one another without any danger; then both parties suddenly rise up, each takes its place, and the battle begins anew with redoubled fury. This goes so far, that they pursue one another into the sea, when those of the victorious party drag their enemies back to land, and put them to the torture of their bites so long, till at length they lie faint and exhausted, and finally perish by the talons and beaks of the ravenous birds of prey that are hovering round.— The authority with which the husbands rule over their wives and children, is frequently displayed in a very tyrannical manner. When the wives, on being attacked by the hunters, abandon their
cubs

cubs from affright, and these are carried off, the husbands immediately cease from pursuing the common foe, and turn upon the mother, as if to demand an account of what is become of them. Then seizing them with their teeth, dash them with violence against the rocks; the wives, stunned with the blows, creep and crouch at the feet of their despots, and caressing them, shed abundance of tears. While the husband continues to feel his vexation, he goes growling to and fro, and rolling his eye balls, just as the land-bears are wont to do; but when his rage is abated, he then begins also bitterly to weep for the loss of his young.

The abundance of fish, with which nature has furnished Kamshatka, is amazing, and seems to be in some measure an atonement for the unfruitful soil of that peninsula; as well as for the want of the most common domestic animals. All the fish of Kamshatka come in the spring from the sea, and proceed up the rivers in such inexpressible multitudes, that the stream is swelled by the great influx, and overflows its banks with living waves. Towards evening, when the fish make a halt in their progress upwards, or on the falling of the water, the shores on both sides are covered with the dead; which diffuse such a stench that epidemical distempers might ensue, were it not for the beneficial winds which are incessantly purifying the air. At the mouths of the rivers, they are usually taken out with tubs. All the fish that advance far up the rivers are of the salmon kind, and of most excellent flavour.—It is remarkable that these animals are begotten and born in the rivers, but are brought up in the sea, and afterward die in the rivers. The young fry swim in autumn to the sea, and remain there till their organic conformation is completed; and in the third year they take their course up the same rivers in which they were engendered, in order to accomplish the intentions of nature by propagation and by death.

The whole of this chapter is so amusing, that we reluctantly abstain from making farther extracts.

The third division of productive industry comprehends the *breeding of cattle*; a business which, in the Russian empire, is pursued in a variety of modes. The nations of herdsmen are the Kirghises, the Kalmucks, the Baschkirs, the Burats, and several others, less numerous:—but this branch of industry, with few exceptions, is very carelessly managed.

‘The method (observes Mr. Tooke) in which the breeding of neat cattle is carried on in Russia, differs immensely from that pursued in other countries of Europe.—Nowhere can carelessness in the management of these beasts be carried to greater lengths than here. Immediately as the snow is melted from the ground, the horned beast must seek his own nourishment, on frequently very poor and

distant pastures, and from this period he is not to expect a handful of provender at home till the winter again renders it impossible for him to graze. In that season, indeed, he is foddered in the stall, but so penuriously, that his bones seem ready to start through his hide, and he frequently cannot raise himself without the help of his keeper, as not seldom dry straw and cold water are the whole of his nourishment. Only the cows when they have just calved receive a little hay and meal, and yet they suckle their calves; and here and there, e.g. the provinces of the Baltic, yield, during the summer, forty pounds of butter and more. Even the practice of foddering and having warm hovels is not in use, though in the most woody districts, and to all these deficiencies, so baleful to the successful nurture of cattle, must still be added, particularly in Siberia, frequent distempers.'

Notwithstanding all these defects in their mode of managing cattle, the inhabitants derive the means of livelihood from this source, and a multitude of important articles for exportation. Live cattle, hides, tallow, salted beef, tongues, and butter, form considerable objects of commerce; amounting, in one year, to upwards of 6,862,000 rubles; not including the wrought articles, as soap, &c.—The breeding of sheep, in the Russian empire, is proportionably much greater even than that of other animals.

The management of Bees, which in most countries of Europe forms but an insignificant branch of husbandry, is an important business among some Russian nations. So considerable a quantity of wax is produced in the Russian empire, that, after the home-consumption, about 12 to 15,000 pood of it (a pood is 40 pounds) are exported only from the ports of the Baltic. Honey likewise forms an important article of inland consumption; as nearly all Siberia is provided with this material from European Russia. Among the Bashkirs, are individuals who possess, besides their bee-gardens, some hundreds, and even some thousands, of wild bee-hives.

'Most of the bee-stages are in the forests, where these insects spontaneously enter the hives prepared there for them by the people. To this end the Bashkirs look out for the strongest and straightest trees of the hardest kinds of timber, on which, at the height of from five and more fathoms above the ground, they construct the bee-house, by hollowing out the trunk plain and smooth, with a tool resembling a chissel, closing the aperture with a board, in which are left little holes for the bees to enter and come out at. The dexterity with which the Bashkirs perform this work, and climb up the loftiest and smoothest trees, is indeed surprising. A sharp hatchet and a common rope is all that they require. The workman places himself against the tree, fastens the rope round his body and the trunk, makes with his hatchet at a certain height a notch in the tree,

tree, and setting his feet against the tree, springs by the assistance of the rope, up to that height, whence he makes another notch as high as he can reach; and proceeds in this manner till he has attained the proper height. Here, where he must tarry longer, he makes his step more commodious, and, resting in the rope, performs his necessary work, for which he has brought up the tools in his girdle. Below the bee-house all the branches are carefully cut away, to render the tree more difficult for the bears to climb. Notwithstanding which, these animals, still pretty frequent in the Uralian forests, are the most dangerous enemies to the culture of bees; and therefore the most arms and other means are employed against them.

Isinglass is an article of which the preparation is almost peculiar to Russia. It is made wherever the large kinds of sturgeon are caught, and is also prepared from the sounds of these fish. It is likewise obtained from sterlets, shad, and barbel; though not so good.

No trade in Russia is so antient and so extensive as that of leather, or yasts. The method of tanning and dyeing them is here very clearly and circumstantially described.

Lest we should extend this article to a disproportioned length, we must close it here. It is very difficult to give an adequate idea of so important a work as the present, without exceeding the bounds of a periodical publication.—Mr. Tooke pretends to no other merit than that which results from care and attention in the compilation of his survey: but those, who have been engaged in similar undertakings, know how much judgment and extensive knowledge are requisite to select the proper materials, to reconcile different and often contradictory accounts, to class the subjects properly, and to produce a work which shall be consistent in its various parts. Such is the present performance: which is evidently the fruit of many years of research and investigation; and we have no doubt that the public will reward the author with applause adequate to the zeal which he has evinced in his attempts to instruct and amuse them.

ART. IX. *Eight Sermons*, containing Answers to some popular Objections against the Necessity or the Credibility of the Christian Revelation, preached before the University of Oxford, in the Year 1799, at the Lecture founded by the Rev. John Bampton, M. A. late Canon of Salisbury. By William Barrow, of Queen's College, LL. D. and F. S. A. 8vo. pp. 412. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1799.

It would now be unreasonable to expect novelty in these annual Bamptonian lectures. At the conclusion of the 18th century, the champion of revealed religion must employ weapons

pons which have been repeatedly used before in defence of this sacred cause. Here, indeed, we do not wish for the display of invention and vague hypothesis, but for the efforts of sound criticism and manly argument. From the voluminous controversy with infidels, the modern advocate for Christianity has an opportunity of making selections accommodated to the circumstances of the times, and fitted to meet those objections which happen to be most popular; and if this be executed with ability, we cannot but approve of such repetitions. The misfortune is, however, that, when zeal outruns discretion, more is undertaken than revealed religion requires; and arguments, by being pushed to an extreme, fail of their intended effect. We need not depreciate reason in order to exalt the gospel; and, if the conviction of rational minds be the object, this would not be the proper mode of conducting the argument. Strong and ingenious reasoning, employed to prove the impotence of unassisted reason, does more than confute itself;—it is childish; it is imprudent.

There is too much of this objectionable mode of arguing in the volume before us. While we are disposed to render ample justice to the ability and ingenuity of the learned lecturer; and while we thank him for the pleasure which, on the whole, his sermons have afforded us; we cannot but lament that he should have deemed it necessary so much to degrade reason and natural religion: for in so doing he has, in our estimation, weakened the argument which he would laudably enforce. The faculty of reason not only makes us susceptible of revelation, but the discoveries and instructions of the latter presuppose the existence of the former, and are incomplete without it. The author would depreciate the value of reason because 'it is not able to direct infants;'—because 'its light does not burst at once on the mind at any subsequent period;' and because 'the far greater part of mankind do not display rational notions of their dependence and responsibility.' Surely the power and capacity of reason cannot be fairly estimated by examples deduced from infancy and ordinary life; and it is no more to the purpose to remark, as Dr. B. does in the next paragraph, that 'the rules of morality, when first announced, are not all self-evident and indisputable; and that many of them require examination and proof, before they bring conviction.' May not the Deist say the same of some parts of the gospel? It is clear that reason gives *some* notions of morality and religion, sufficient to form a basis for the glorious structure of revelation. It gives *some*, though not *sufficient* light. This is what, we think, the Bampton lecturer should have discriminated; for, by assigning every thing to revelation, and

making this 'the original source of all religion,' he in fact denies that "the heavens declare the glory of God," and that "his power and godhead can be inferred and understood by the things that are made."

If, as Dr. Barrow suggests, some distinguished advocates of Christianity have allowed more to natural religion than is justly its due, there is no necessity for running into the opposite extreme; and assigning to revelation, or to miraculous divine communication, that which is discoverable by the exertion of the human faculties. Not to say that this is against an universally received philosophical principle, *Frustra fit per plura quod fieri potest per pauciora*, it is making a claim for revelation which revelation no where makes for itself. We are no where told that language is of divine origin; nor can it be with more probability derived from this source, than music, painting, and sculpture.

We are of opinion that the necessity and credibility of the Christian religion can be demonstrated on firmer and better grounds. We would speak of reason as the noblest natural gift of God to man; and, without descending to weak declamations against it, we would accurately mark its limits and its insufficiency, and on this principle establish the necessity of revelation. We should here prefer strong to dilated reasoning; and on such a subject we should be cautious how we indulged ingenuity, at the hazard of the cause which we undertook to defend.

Our zeal for Christianity being not inferior to that of Dr. Barrow of any man, we may bespeak indulgence and attention to these remarks:—but we must not quit this point without adding that it is not on every occasion, but only in some places, that it appears to us that Dr. Barrow's ardour has exceeded the bounds of judgment.

Considerable labour has been exerted in composing these discourses; the 1st of which is On the Variety of Opinions and Tenets in Religion: the 2d, On the Necessity of a Divine Revelation, for the Instruction of Mankind in Religion and Morality: the 3d, On the Probability that God has revealed his Will to Mankind; that this Revelation is the Foundation of all Religion among them; and that the History, the Doctrines, and the Precepts of this Revelation are contained in the Old and New Testament: the 4th, On the Favourableness of Christianity to present Enjoyment: the 5th, On the Mysterious Doctrines of Christianity: the 6th, On the Want of Universality in the Promulgation and Reception of the Christian Religion: the 7th, On Prayer; and the 8th, On the good Effects of Christianity on the Faith and Morals of its Professors.—The sermons contain a variety

a variety of observations, and trains of reasoning, which merit the serious consideration of unbelievers. We had marked several passages, with a view of placing them before our readers in confirmation of this opinion: but we must be contented with extracting the general recapitulation at the end of the volume:

‘ I have now considered as many of the difficulties respecting the truth and credibility of divine revelation, as the limits of the present lecture will admit; and in considering them the aim and object have been to shew, not that the difficulties do not exist; but that they are not insuperable; not that the objections are wholly groundless; but that they are not conclusive against the divine origin of Christianity. In each of the points that have been examined; in the variety of religions in the world, or in the variety of opinions upon them; in the real weakness and boasted strength of human reason; or in the nature and necessity of a divine revelation; in the precepts of the gospel, as they affect the enjoyments of the present life; in the mysterious doctrines which it contains; or in the duties of worship, which it prescribes; in the want of universality in its publication and reception; or in its want of due influence on the lives of its professors; in each of these the attempt has been to prove, that there is nothing inconsistent with itself, or with the attributes of the Deity; nothing unsuitable to the nature of a divine revelation, or to the beneficial purposes, which it professes to promote; nothing irreconcilable to the truth of prophecy; or inadmissible as articles of faith by the human mind. If this can be effected, the positive evidence will then operate in its full force; and by that, and that only, must the divine origin of the gospel finally stand or fall. But in proportion as objection is invalidated, the grounds of faith are strengthened; as perplexity and delusion are dissipated, the mind is open to truth and conviction. Whatever is not physically impossible, is credible when competent witnesses are produced; and the Christian revelation is to be believed, not because every difficulty can be clearly solved, or every article demonstrated; but because there is adequate evidence; evidence as strong as the facts are extraordinary; to us at present, indeed, the usual evidence of history; though from peculiar circumstances entitled to more than usual credit; but in its origin, and its first teachers, preternatural testimony to preternatural truth.

‘ The Christian Revelation, however, is to be recommended, not merely because it has the advantage in point of argument; the preponderance of probability, and a *cloud of witnesses* in its favour; but because it offers blessings, with which no other objects of human pursuit can come in competition; because it is every way superior to every other system of faith and hope. To our duty it inseparably connects our interest; and unites the best affections of the heart with the best conclusions of the understanding.

‘ Were the arguments for and against a future state equal; were the difficulties a balance to the evidence; still it would be wisdom to secure the better side of so important an alternative, by a faithful

discharge of the duties of our station. In the present life it is always thought prudent and creditable, to take the chances in our favour; to incline to the side of safety. Should we not take some care to provide for the inestimable chances of eternity! In this life too, where the point is doubtful, we may often suspend our judgment without mischief or danger; where we know not how to act right, we may refuse to act at all. But on the question of revelation a decision must be made. We are not permitted to take a middle course between faith and infidelity, between duty and disobedience. The Creator will not share his honour with his creatures: we cannot divide our services between God and Mammon.

If again we reject the Christian revelation, we are launched into an ocean of uncertainty both in principle and practice; with no compass to direct, no friendly star to guide us to the haven of satisfaction or safety. Philosophy cannot inform us whence we came; or whither we are appointed to go. It leaves us to comfort or torment each other for a season, to enjoy or suffer, as it may happen, and ere long to bow beneath the stroke of death; of which it can tell us neither the cause, the manner, nor the end. But revelation offers a solution of all these difficulties; a light to guide our steps through this labyrinth of darkness. It points out both the course we ought to pursue, and abundant motives to pursue it. Of our duty it has proclaimed the nature and the end, the performance and the recompence. Revelation has furnished the proper object of faith, and confidence to hope: it has supplied alleviation to misfortune, and consolation even in death; for it has promised to virtue support and reward. Had Cicero been acquainted with the doctrines of Christianity, he would not have maintained, that he was the only wise man, who had extinguished his passions; and had Brutus known them, he would not have pronounced virtue to be only a shadow.'

We wish that Dr. B. had not *gravely* remarked, that 'it ought to be a source of satisfaction that we are not required to understand mysteries,' p. 242; and that he had not laid down in p. 386 the erroneous position, that 'the scriptures do not divide our duties into those of higher and lower estimation.' What is the idea conveyed by "the *weightier* matters of the law?" and by "I will have mercy, and not (or, *rather than*) sacrifice?" Do not the scriptures state *moral* duties to be of higher estimation than *positive* duties?—*Et contra officium est*, as Cicero says, *majus non anteponi minori*.

Though Dr. Barrow says in the advertisement, that 'he has not laboured to be eloquent but to be perspicuous,' his sermons indicate respectable abilities, and as compositions must reflect considerable credit on their author.

ART. X. *The History of the Politics of Great Britain and France, from the Time of the Conference at Pillnitz to the Declaration of War against Great Britain. With an Appendix, containing a Narrative of the Attempts made by the British Government to restore Peace.* By Herbert Marsh, Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 250 in each. 10s. 6d. Boards. Marsh and Dunsford, Fleet-street. 1800.

WE believe that few of our readers are unapprized of the high reputation which the author of these volumes has acquired by his contributions to biblical literature. The public were first made acquainted with his merit, by his discourse on the authenticity of the five books of Moses; his next and most celebrated work was a translation, with copious notes, of Michaelis's Introduction to the New Testament; and he afterward published Letters to Mr. Archdeacon Travis. Of all these productions, as they appeared, we have made honorable mention.—We understand that, for some years past, he has resided in the University of Leipzig*, for the convenience of its public libraries, and of free access to the biblical learning of Germany; and we hear, with great pleasure, that he has completed his translation of the second part of Michaelis's Introduction;—we shall wait its appearance in print with some impatience.

Mr. Marsh is confessedly one of those scholars whose learning and talents reflect honor on their country, and will convey instruction to the latest posterity: we own, therefore, that, though we are far from being insensible to the merit of the present publication, and though we think that the subject of it is highly important, we should much rather see the author in the character in which he has gained such distinguished reputation, than in that of a political writer even of the very highest name. Political subjects are mostly of momentary concern, and perish with the day which sees them rise: literary topics are of every age and every country. The *Mémoire Justificatif* of Mr. Gibbon is already forgotten: but his Roman History, and even the journal of his studies, will be read while genius and taste are admired, and while the English, the French, or the German language is extant.

On one account, however, it is gratifying to see Mr. Marsh's pen employed on the present subject. The waste of blood and

* The present work was first printed at Leipzig, and in the German language: affording, we are told, a rare instance of proficiency in that tongue. We had procured a copy, with the design of giving an account of it in our last Appendix: but, hearing of this impression in English, we altered our intention.

treasure, in the war between Great Britain and France, has been immense; and, as it is generally true that the authors of a war are guilty of the calamities which it occasions, every Englishman must be happy to find the charge of aggression repelled from his countrymen. It is an arduous task, but it has fallen into able hands.—In this number of our Review, we shall give a sketch of the first volume, abstaining from remark, and leaving the author to speak for himself.

He begins his inquiry with the conferences between the Emperor and the King of Prussia at Pillnitz, in 1791. It is known that, on that celebrated occasion, these monarchs signed a declaration, by which they agreed to take certain measures in respect to France, provided that other powers, whose assistance they had solicited, would co-operate with them. From the Emperor's language to the Marquis de Bouillé, (*Mémoires de Bouillé*, Tome II. page 139,) that "he was assured of the co-operation of all the powers, with exception to England, which was resolved to preserve the most strict neutrality;" from the King of Sweden's Letter to the Marquis, dated 2d Sept. 1791, (Tome II. p. 142—145,) expressing "his apprehensions of an opposition on the part of England, if he should land troops on the coast of Flanders;" from Brissot's declarations in his studied speech on the 20th Oct. 1791, that "England was then exerting herself to soften the anger of the Diet against France, *s'occupait à calmer les esprits de Ratisbonne*;" and from the French government fixing, in their declaration of the 4th of February 1793, the first charge against England for what was done by her, after the 10th Aug. 1792; Mr. Marsh contends that the National Convention itself was conscious of the British Government having no concern in the coalition of the powers against France in 1791.

In the next chapter, the author states, in a short and pointed manner, what he considers as the *friendly* conduct of Great Britain towards France, on the insurrection of the negroes in the island of St. Domingo; and the ingratitude of the French National Assembly to the British Government on that occasion.—Other important events, relative to Great Britain and France in the year 1791, he holds out as proofs of the pacific dispositions of the former. When, on the 28th September 1791, the King of France sent his circular letters to the courts of Europe, notifying his acceptance of the new constitution, some of them were very slow in giving their answers, and some returned no answer; the King of Spain contented himself with signifying to the French Minister, that he considered the French King's acceptance of the Constitution as an act not of his free will; the King of Sweden returned the letter unopened:—but the

the answer of the Court of Great Britain, dated 6th October 1791, was both early and friendly (*Moniteur* 5 Nov. 1791).— In January 1792, his Majesty's speech, and that of Mr. Pitt in the following February, announced an immediate reduction of the military and naval establishment of Great Britain; and accordingly the number of sailors and mariners to be employed for the year 1792 was reduced to 16,000; the army underwent a similar reduction; the annual expenditure sustained a diminution of 400,000*l.*; taxes to the amount of half that sum were abolished; and, the Hessian subsidy expiring, his Majesty's Ministers declined to renew it. These circumstances, in our author's opinion, amount to unquestionable proofs of the pacific disposition of England.

Respecting the treaty of Pavia, Mr. Marsh collects some strong facts. The work of most authority, in which that treaty has yet appeared, is *Martens—Recueil des principaux traités* (Tome V. p. 5); and he ushers it into his collection by saying that he is “*fort éloigné d'annoncer comme digne de foi une pièce, que le contenu, les circonstances qui l'ont précédé, la signature même, semblent déclarer apocryphe.*” It is not signed on the part of England; and it contains no mention of England. So late as the 15th January 1793, Brissot (*Moniteur* 15 Jan. 1793) acknowledged that the neutrality of England in respect to France continued till “the immortal 10th of the preceding August;” and, but two days before Brissot's declaration was made, the National assembly (*Moniteur* 16 Jan. 1793) talked of England “departing from the neutrality which she had till then observed.”

On the 20th of April 1792, the National Assembly decreed war against the King of Hungary and Bohemia. A few days afterward, M. Chauvelin notified it in form to our Government; in what manner it was received appears from that Minister's own letter of the 28th of the same month. He says that “Mr. Pitt had caused to be inserted in all Government papers, a contradiction of the reports that Government had issued press warrants; that Mr. Pitt had explicitly declared to a deputation of merchants that the Government would not interfere with the affairs of France; that his favorite plan of keeping up the price of the public funds was a guarantee of his wish to preserve the neutrality: that the nation was averse from the war; that no preparations of war were making either in the arsenals or the ports; and that the system of neutrality had been discussed and been determined upon in the cabinet.” On the 15th of May, Chauvelin communicated a note to Lord Grenville, requesting that British subjects might be forbidden to serve under any power at war with France.

To this the British cabinet immediately assented, and a proclamation to that effect was issued on the 25th of the same month. Some days before, his Majesty's proclamation against seditious writings had appeared; and this measure, the author observes, has been held out by some writers as evincing an hostile disposition to France. He discusses the charge, therefore, at length; and he says that it had no relation to France, either in her exterior or interior relations, but that it was a mere act of national policy. It is alleged, he observes, that the period at which it was issued was very critical; and this is perfectly true, but the period was critical *for England*. Various political publications, not of cool rational inquiry, nor calculated to exercise the judgment of the learned, but to inflame the passions of the illiterate, had been circulated with surprising assiduity through Great Britain. The general object of them was to make the people elate with the notion of their imaginary rights, and wholly forget their real and most sacred duties; to persuade them that all kings were tyrants and all subjects slaves; that the evils which, while men are men, no human institution can prevent, were merely the effect of the government of the country; and that, this being once destroyed, all men would rise to wealth, to power, and to honor. To disseminate these doctrines, numerous societies were formed and correspondencies established in every part of the kingdom. 'Lastly,' says Mr. Marsh, 'one of these societies opened, by its own avowal, a correspondence with the Jacobin club in Paris, whose grand object was the destruction of monarchical government of every description, in which it succeeded in its own country, within ten weeks after the period in question. If these avowed excesses had been any longer treated with indulgence, the revolution which soon after deprived the King of France of his throne, would in all probability have extended itself to Great Britain.' Under these circumstances, the proclamation in question appeared; and the author adds that, whatever misrepresentations of its tendency may have been made in this country, the French government did not consider it as hostile to them;—since, on the 18th of June, nearly a month after its appearance, the National Assembly formally thanked his Britannic Majesty for his friendly dispositions, and his sentiments of humanity, justice, and peace; and when Lord Gower, after the king was dethroned, quitted Paris, Le Brun, in the name of the Executive Council, sent him a note; in which, in their name also, he conveyed to him "the hopes of the French nation that the British cabinet would not depart, at that critical moment, from that justice, that moderation, and that impartiality,

impartiality, which it had displayed till that time." (*Moniteur* 26 August 1792.)

The author next considers the answer of the British Cabinet to Chauvelin's note on the 18th June, requesting the mediation of Great Britain between France and the two continental powers then at war with her. He asserts that our engaging in the negotiation, by mere words, must have been ineffectual; and that our engaging in it beyond mere words would have been to make ourselves a party to the quarrel. Thus far he argues on the supposition that the government of France really wished for the re-establishment of peace: but this, he assures us, was very far from their thoughts. They had, he says, such a thirst after hostilities, and they so frequently expressed it in their public speeches and writings, that, if any man should take the pains to collect the scattered expressions on the subject from the *Moniteur*, they would fill a volume. In this wish for war, the author makes all parties agree, except only the sincere royalists. Isuard informed his countrymen that "a war was necessary to complete the revolution;" Louvet told them, that "all genuine republicans wished for war, because peace was death to the republic; that they invited war to them, aspiring to the solid glory, to the immortal honor of destroying royalty and destroying it for ever; first in France, then in every part of the universe;"—and Brissot calls on them "to set fire to the four corners of Europe, for on that depended their salvation."

In this part of his work, the author produces several important documents, to shew that, though in 1791 a coalition had been formed against France, yet in April 1792, when France declared war against Austria, the chief instigators of the coalition of 1791 were dead, and the views both of their successors and of the surviving powers were pacific. He quotes a remarkable letter from Delassart to Necker, in which the writer acknowledged that "the French provoked the war, and forced all Europe to rise against them."

The re-call of the British ambassador from Paris is next considered. On the deposition and imprisonment of the king, the British Ambassador's credentials ceased to be valid; and his farther residence at Paris was improper and unsafe. He left it with solemn declarations that it was not the intention of the British government to interfere with the internal affairs of France; and the government of France was so well satisfied of its being the intention of England not to quarrel, that Le Brun, in his report on the situation of France, in respect to the different powers of Europe, delivered to the Assembly on the 23d August, assured them, "that the British Ambassador had left with them a satisfactory declaration of the determination of the

the court to observe a strict neutrality." Mr. Marsh remarks that, by the desire of our court, the secretary of the English legation remained at Paris till the murder of two British subjects, under the pretext of their being aristocrats, and the butcheries of the 2d September, excited apprehensions for his personal safety.

The author next calls our attention to the French conquests in Germany, the Netherlands, and Savoy; and to the great increase of their naval forces, and their immense preparations by land. He supposes that their gigantic plans of subjugation and aggrandizement, and their means of carrying them into execution, were unequivocally announced by the famous decree of the 19th Nov. 1792; by which the National Assembly proclaimed, "that France was ready to assist every nation that was willing to recover its liberty." This invitation to rebellion was but too well obeyed. Deputies from British societies were admitted to the bar of the French National Convention, to signify their intention of overturning the actual government of the country, and establishing a republic, by forming a national convention. According to the author's account, they met with the greatest encouragement.

Mr. Marsh next comments on the official communications which passed between Great Britain and Holland, in consequence of the progress of the French arms in the Austrian Netherlands. This leads him to the consideration of the four important bills, on which those, who accuse Great Britain of being the aggressors in the war, found a considerable part of their argument;—the alien bill, the assignat bill, and the bills prohibiting the exportation of arms and corn from Great Britain to France. All these, he tells us, were matters of national police, which every nation is intitled to regulate. At all events, the French could not with justice complain of the alien bill, because, on the 18th of May, they passed a stronger decree of the same nature, and were very rigorous in their execution of it: they could not complain of the bill prohibiting the exportation of arms, because, 13 months before, they had issued a similar prohibition; nor of the bill prohibiting the exportation of corn, because they had already adopted a similar measure; having, during the whole of the year 1792, suffered no wheat of French growth to be exported from France. The bill passed in England against the exportation of corn was the more necessary, in our author's opinion, since (according to him) the French had, for some time previously to it, bought up the corn in England, even at a higher price than it fetched in France; in order to occasion a scarcity of it, to excite in consequence a general discontent, and thus to give rise to the desired

desired insurrection. He asserts that no one can doubt that the assignat-bill was a necessary measure, since the French assignats were considered by them as fit instruments for ruining the Bank of England, according to Chaussard's own confession. They were also applied to the purpose of draining Great Britain of bullion, as well as coin; and so rapidly did they effect this object, that, in the year 1792, not less than the enormous quantity of 2,909,000 ounces of silver were purchased with assignats and sent into France. He then produces passages from their best writers; in which they confess explicitly that, long after those bills had passed, a war between Great Britain and France might have been avoided, had it been the will of either the Convention or the Executive Council. He cites several passages to this effect, from Dumouriez, Brissot, and Carras; and he particularly observes that Kersaint, a leading man in the National Convention, and an avowed promoter of the war with England, made a long speech on the 1st January 1793, in which he entered into a very minute examination of the views and interests both of the ministerial and the opposition party in England, and thence deduced the following conclusion, "*Pitt ne veut donc pas la guerre*: Pitt therefore does not wish for war:"—but, (incredible as it may appear,) the inference which he draws from that conclusion, is, "*C'est sur la ruine de la Tour de Londres que vous devez signer avec le peuple Anglais detrompé, le traité qui reglera les destins des nations*: It is on the ruins of the Tower of London that, with the undeceived people of England, you should sign the treaty which is to regulate the destiny of nations." Thus, says Mr. Marsh, 'the pacific views of the British cabinet, and the hostile views of the French government, were acknowledged without reserve at one and the same time.'

We now come to the last and perhaps the most important chapter of the first volume. It begins with the decree of the 15th December 1792, prefaced by the following introduction: "The National Convention, faithful to the principles of the sovereignty of the people, which does not permit them to acknowledge any institution that militates against it, decrees as follows."—Mr. Marsh mentions and comments on the principal articles. The 11th of them he thus translates: "The French nation declares that it will treat as an enemy that people, which, refusing or renouncing liberty and equality, should chuse to preserve, or recall, or treat with its princes and privileged orders." This Mr. M. calls a formal declaration of war against every nation which did not chuse to change its political constitution; and he says that it was fully explained by the commentary which the Executive Council annexed to it, in

order to give to it a greater degree of energy. "It is evident," says the commentary, "that a people so enamoured of its chains, and so obstinately attached to its state of brutishness, as to refuse the restoration of its rights, is the accomplice, not only of its own despots, but even of all the crowned usurpers who divide the domain of the earth and of men; that such a servile people is the declared enemy, not only of the French republic, but even of all other nations; and therefore that the distinction, which we have so justly established between government and people, ought not to be observed in favor of a people of this description: in short, that the right of natural defence, the duty of insuring the preservation of our liberty, and the success of our arms, the general interest of restoring peace to Europe, which it cannot obtain but by the annihilation of the despots and their satellites, all conspire in inducing us to treat such a people according to the rigour of war and of conquest."—"Is not this," says Mr. Marsh, "a manifest declaration, that the rulers of France were resolved not to lay down their arms till all the governments of Europe were gradually overturned? And have they not acted to the present hour conformably to their resolution?" That, in all these measures, the National Convention had its eye particularly fixed on Great Britain and Holland, is too obvious, says our author, to need a proof: "but," he continues, "should any one be really disposed to entertain a doubt on this subject, the following passage in the opinion delivered and published by Chaussard on the decree in question will probably remove it. "Without doubt it was the interest of France to conquer the commerce of the Belgic provinces, swayed and neutralized by that of Holland: thence to alarm and menace the United Provinces, to plant our assignats in their very counting houses, there to ruin the Bank of England, and in short to complete the revolution of the money system. It was of consequence to France, to engross as it were the vast workhouses of trade, these manufactures of national prosperity."

The author concludes this chapter by the following note:

"The important and decisive facts recorded in this chapter, which place the sentiments and conduct of the French government in the clearest point of view, are wholly omitted by a celebrated opposition writer, whose pamphlet in the year 1797 met with a very unusual sale. The same pamphlet contains likewise not a syllable of what has been related in the latter part of the seventh chapter, where the hostile views of the republican rulers of France have been proved from their own declarations: nor does it take notice of the conduct of the National Convention on the 28th of November, with many other acts recorded in the 10th chapter, which shew a decided resolution to overturn the British government and constitution. In like manner the facts

facts related in the 1st, 2d, 4th, and 5th chapters, which prove beyond a doubt the pacific sentiments of the British cabinet, as also the numerous acknowledgements made on this very subject, by the French themselves, with their concessions, that the British cabinet had observed the strictest neutrality, and that a war with Great Britain might have been avoided, if they had chosen it, all which acknowledgements and concessions have been quoted at large in the 5th, 6th, 8th, 9th, and 11th chapters of the present work, are in the said pamphlet passed over in total silence. Nor is the reader even informed there, that the public declaration of hostilities proceeded from the part of France.—Yet it is called, on the title-page, a view of ‘the Causes of the War.’—

Here we close our review of the first volume of this work. The reader will see that it is replete with curious matter and acute observation, that it is written with great clearness, well arranged, and illustrated throughout by dates and documents. The second volume is still more interesting.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XI. *The Statistical Account of Scotland.* Drawn up from the Communications of the Ministers of the different Parishes. By Sir John Sinclair, Bart. 8vo. Vols. XX. XXI. 17s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798, 1799.

AFTER the notice and commendation which we bestowed on the preceding volumes of this elaborate and useful work, (see M. Rev. vol. viii. p. 285. vol. xiii. p. 431. and vol. xvi. p. 114. N. S.) little more remains for us to do in this article, than to announce the present volumes as the completion of the undertaking; and to offer to Sir John Sinclair our hearty congratulations, on having thus brought his extensive labours to a happy conclusion. Not ignorant of literary toil, we can participate the satisfaction which he expresses in presenting the public with the remainder of the Statistical Accounts of the different Parishes in Scotland, ‘*without a single one being omitted.*’ A collection so perfect must be valuable as a book of reference; and it is made peculiarly so by the General Index at the end. Sir John is not contented, however, with having collected and arranged a large mass of valuable materials; he has begun, we are informed, his proposed Analysis of these Accounts, in which he designs to give the result of this minute Inquiry into the State of North Britain. We admire his perseverance and public spirit; and we have no doubt that his exertions will be thankfully acknowledged by the community, and particularly by his countrymen.

The 20th volume contains an account of twenty parishes; the total population of which in 1755 is said to have been

37,905.

37,905, and in 1797 to be 38,888; making the trivial increase of 983. It may hence be supposed that each of these twenty parishes is not in a flourishing state: but some are thriving, while others are declining. The greatest increase of population in the districts here noticed is in the parish of *Sorn*; where, since 1755, the inhabitants have increased 1285, viz. from 1494 to 2779; and the greatest decrease is in the parish of *Kilmoruck*, where the numbers have diminished 512, viz. from 2830 to 2318. The growing population of the first mentioned parish is in part thus explained: 'The condition and character of the people have been considerably altered for the better. This agreeable change has been occasioned, partly by the rise in the price of labour, and of all the productions of agriculture, partly by the scarcity and high price of spirituous liquors, and partly by the high incentives to industry, which the manufactures and ready money of Catherine, together with various moral improvements, have afforded.' It is added afterward, 'Very few of the native inhabitants have, at any time, enlisted into the army.' No particular reasons are given for the decline of the other parish. The climate is stated to have undergone a considerable change: but this does not seem to have affected the longevity of the inhabitants, 29 of whom are from 70 to 100, and 1 from 100 to 105 years old.

Vol. 21 contains the additions and corrections sent to the author; to which are added, Statistical Accounts of the Universities of Scotland, with the exception of those of St. Andrew's and Edinburgh; for the former of which, the author refers to Dr. Adamson's description of the town and parish of St. Andrew's, which includes an account of the University; and for the latter, to the Histories of the Metropolis of Scotland, written by Maitland and Arnot. At the same time, he informs us that Professor Dalzel is drawing up an historical work, respecting the University of Edinburgh, which promises to be a very interesting and valuable performance.

Among the various papers exhibited in the General Appendix, is one by the Rev. David Wilkie, minister of Culter, intitled "Attempt to ascertain the Population of Scotland, anno 1792." This ingenious paper makes the population of Scotland in 1792 to be 1,500,000, or 234,620 more than in 1755; when Dr. Webster reckoned it at 1,265,380. Mr. Wilkie states that 'of those who are born, 1 out of 30 arrives at 80 years of age.'

The copious General Index, which we have already mentioned, is divided into three parts; the first containing an enumeration of all the subjects treated; the second, the names of

of the persons ; and the third, the names of the places mentioned in the Statistical volumes.

Sir John Sinclair politely returns his acknowledgements to the clergy of the Church of Scotland, for their great assistance in completing a work, which, he says, stands unrivalled for extent of useful information.

ART. XII. *Minutes, Experiments, Observations, and General Remarks, on Agriculture, in the Southern Counties* ; a new Edition. To which is prefixed A Sketch of the Vale of London, and an Outline of its Rural Economy : now first published. By Mr. Marshall. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 400 in each. 15s. Boards. Nicol. 1799.

ON the importance of agriculture as a science, and on the abilities and experience of Mr. Marshall as a Professor of it, we need not here expatiate. In the 60th vol. of our Review, p. 19—169—249, and in vol. 61, p 241, we noticed, with the commendation which they merited, the works of which the volumes before us are for the most part a republication ; and that a new edition should be requisite is one pleasing proof, among others, of the commendable attention bestowed by men of sense and reading, on agricultural affairs and on rural improvement. This pursuit is wisdom, virtue, and riches.

As the author explains his intentions in a short Advertisement prefixed, and as we cannot elucidate his design in fewer words than he has employed, we shall transcribe it entire :

‘ The *Minutes of Agriculture* having been some years out of print, and the *Experiments and Observations concerning Agriculture and the Weather* being a continuation of the same record of experience, in the same department and on the same form, I now incorporate them, in one work ; and print them on the plan, which I uniformly adopted, in publishing the results of my experience, in other departments of the kingdom.

‘ And in order to shew, with full advantage, the situation and natural circumstances, under which my practice, in this department, was pursued, and the established customs and habits, out of which my experience arose, I have thought it right to preface the present edition, with a sketch of the *Vale of London* ; in which the remarks, it contains, were written ; and to give an outline of the established practice, which necessarily formed the ground-work of my own ; thereby giving this the same advantage as the other registers of my experience ; and, at the same time, bringing forward some particulars of management, which have occurred to my observation, in the environs of the metropolis, and which have not heretofore been entered on record.’

‘ The present practice of rural economy, in the Vale of London, is probably of long standing ; and although it may be said to be in some

some measure peculiar to the situation in which it has originated, especially in the more immediate vicinity of the town; yet, at the distance at which the practice, that gave rise to the following remarks, was carried on, the neighbourhood of the capital (unless in some few particulars) has less influence, than a stranger in it may imagine: as will be seen in the following outline; which, though it comprehends, generally, the Vale Lands under view, must be considered as more particularly belonging to the *South-East Quarter of the Vale.*

The district here described, by way of introduction to the *Minutes*, under the title of the *Vale of London*, is situated 'between the heights of Buckinghamshire, Middlesex, and Essex on the North, and the Chalk Hills and Heath-lands of Surrey on the South, Shooter's Hill in Kent, and the rising grounds of Essex on the East, and Windsor-Forest and other hills of Berkshire on the West. It is an irregular ellipsis or oval, whose longest diameter is about thirty-five miles and its shortest about twenty, giving about five hundred square miles.'

In the sketch given of this vale, (and Mr. M. intends only a sketch,) which is represented as the most extensive *inland flat* in the island, notice is taken of its inconsiderable elevation above the sea—of the situation of the metropolis—of the climate of the vale—of its principal river, the Thames—of its soil and fossil productions—of its roads and inland navigation, rural management, vegetable produce, and rural ornament.

The *Minutes*, *Experiments*, &c. which follow, have been re-touched by the author. He has endeavoured, he tells us, 'to free the present edition from the exuberances of the former, without destroying the primary intention; and he has a satisfaction in being able to say, that, possessed of his present experience, he has not had occasion to correct more than one round assertion of a radical error (respecting rye-grass) in his probationary publication.'

To the new remarks subjoined to the original *Minutes*, is prefixed the date *January 1799.*

ART. XIII. *Mr. Porson's Edition of the Hecuba and Orestes of Euripides; and Mr. Wakefield's Diatribe.*

[See Rev. Vols. XXVIII. and XXIX.]

OUR readers will probably feel alarmed, when they observe that Mr. Porson's edition of the *HECUBA* and *ORESTES*, and Mr. Wakefield's *DIATRIBE*, are again introduced to their notice. It certainly was our wish, after such a length of discussion, to have closed the subject for ever, as soon as the last part of the article was finished: but we did not expect that all our decisions would be ratified by universal consent; though

we were also well aware, that critical disquisitions may be prolonged far beyond the limits which are prescribed by a nice judgement; or which are demanded for establishing the truth of any philological position.

The respect, however, which we feel due to the remarks of some learned correspondents has induced us to trespass again on the patience of our readers. Their observations, with a few corrections, which our own inadvertency, or the hurry of our printer, has rendered necessary, shall be delivered with the utmost possible conciseness.

M. Rev. January 1799. p. 83. l. 38. read, *paragogicum*.

P. 88. l. 3. — v. 13. Ὁ καὶ με γ.—A correspondent, T. T. to whose sagacity and erudition we were formerly obliged* for some remarks on the review of Mr. Glasse's *Samson Agonistes*, observes on this passage, that he is inclined to follow the interpreters who explain O by Δι' α.

“The very same verb (he adds) had just occurred, ver. 6. where it has, if I may term it so, a *personal* nominative: Ὁς με (v. 4.)—ἵππεσσι με. It seems, therefore, more natural that, occurring again so soon, it should have a similar nominative: WHO sent me away privily—which was the reason why HE sent me away privily. This seems more natural than: which was the circumstance, THAT sent me away privily. The tenth verse also: χρυσὸν ἐκίμπευ λάθρα παλῆς, seems to favour this explanation. Nothing would prevent my referring the verb ὑπέκπεμψεν in both places to the sender, but my being satisfied that δ for δὲ is objectionable. Consult Brunck in *Aristoph. Eccl.* 338.” T. T. †

P. 89. l. 12. The termination αιος derived from αει or αιει.] —“A difficulty seems to arise from this hypothesis. Does it not seem to require, that the same derivation should be applied to all the numerous adjectives in αιος? Does αιος imply *continuance* in δικαίος, βίαιος, &c. &c.?” T. T.

P. 89. v. 41. πρόσφαγμα.] The same ingenious critic thinks that we have scarcely stated Mr. Wakefield's objection fairly, as he supposes it to be derived from πρὸς, not πρὸ, and σφάγμα. We had said that Mr. W. wishes to *spell* this word with a double sigma; and we added that this is an *improper addition*: but, observes our correspondent,

“The addition is proper, *supposing*, what Mr. W. supposes, that the word itself is wrong, and should be πρόσσφαγμα from πρὸς and σφάγμα. A reader might possibly, at least, be led, from the manner in which the objection is expressed, to understand not that G. W. had disputed the *derivation* of the word, but that he had *spelled* it improperly. The reference to Markland has the same tendency. It

* M. Rev. November 1789, p. 475.

† We shall leave the decision on these, and on some other remarks, to our learned readers.

should have been stated, that G. W. contended that the word should be understood as derived from *πρός* and *σφαγμα*, and, therefore, that it should be spelled with a double sigma.—I agree perfectly with the M. R. that Mr. Wakefield's alteration of the text is unwarrantable. Yet there seems some difficulty in the word. May not *πρό* be taken in its local sense, as in *πρό τύμβου*, v. 526?" T. T.

P. 91. v. 68—74. In order to reconcile Euripides with Aristophanes, Mr. Porson proposes a transposition, and would read: *ὦ σκολία Νυξ, Μελανοπήρου γυνὴ μάτερ' Ὀνείρων*. Our learned correspondent observes, "Hesiod is with Mr. Porson: Theogon. 212.

Νυξ δ' ἔτεκε στυγερὴν τε Μόρον, καὶ Κῆρα μέλαιναν, καὶ Θάνατον· τίνε δ' ὕπνον; ETIKTE δὲ Φύλον' ONEIPΩΝ." T. T.

P. 92. 6. Read: *Paræmiaci*, or anapestics of fourteen times, not fourteen lines. This typographical error is noticed also by the observant T. T.

P. 92. 33. Read *μέμνησαι*, not *μήμνησαι*. P. 98. l. 10. read *Their great similitude*. The short space of time, which can be allowed to the printers of a Review, must apologize for these and many similar blunders.

P. 200. near the bottom. Eustathius was probably supplied with his *ἀποφανοῦσθαι*, from v. 128. of the *Hecuba*. With regard to *Ἀξιούμενον* used *sine substantivo*, a learned and most ingenious correspondent, Y. has favoured us with a remark, which we shall present to the reader in his own words;—they cannot be easily changed without detriment:

"Xenoph. K. Π. Δ'. p. 238. *Ed. Hutchin. tert.* [309. *Ed. quarto.*] "Οὐκ ἀπὸ τοῦ κακοῦ ἔργου ΤΙΜΙΣ ΤΙΝΟΣ ἩΙΩΝΕ τὴν καλὴν γῆν. I do think that Mr. Gilbert Wakefield has been too hypercritical in his note on Mr. Porson's *ἀξιούμενον*, and that the Monthly Reviewer is too scrupulous. *Ἀξιούν τιμῆς* seems to have been an *etiquette* phrase in cases of this kind; in which the particular *τιμῆς* is not required to be stated. It may be *τινός*. The word *τιμῆς* itself might be omitted. *Exsequiz*,—*Justa*,—*Efferre*,—are expressions as general as *ἀξίουν*.

"In the passage of the *Hecuba*, to bring the genitive into view, and especially the general genitive *τιμῆς*, would be mere *surfeit*. In line 313, the full expression occurs: *ἄξιός τιμῆς*. In line 320, we have it again concentrated: *τιμύμενον*, that is: *τιμῆς ἀξιούμενον*. Lastly, in l. 323. *ἀξιούμενον*, generalized. Here then is a natural progress of thought: particular, concentrated, generalized; and as to thought, what difference is there between *ἀξιούμενον* and *ἀξιούμενον τιμῆς*, that is *τινός*;"

P. 202. v. 444—446. On re-considering this passage, as it stands in Mr. Porson's edition, we retract the decision given in the Review. The Professor's full stop after *φθαι*. is right, for *ὧς*, thus accented, is the same as *ὅπως*. Mr. Wakefield's translation is not correct.

P. 204. v. 565. κατέβου γόνυ.] "I confess that κατέβου does sound to my ear a little like *laying a thing down*, or *aside*, that is *no part of one's body*. It is to be wished, that the M. Reviewer could have produced, at least, *one* decided instance of κατέβου so used; that is, with γόνυ, κάβα. He comes, indeed, very near it. I prefer κατέβου." T. T.

P. 205. v. 584. "Suppose we were to follow the *Harl. MS.* λῆγαι, and punctuate thus, only changing δι in v. 585 into τα.

Τοιαδ' ἀμφὶ σῆς λέγων

Παιδὸς θακούσης, ἐντεκνωταίνης ΤΕ σι

Πασῶν γυναικῶν δυστυχισταίνης θ' ὄρε. T. T."

P. 206. v. 592. 3. These lines, as they stand in Euripides and in his Commentators, do not satisfy the learned and acute T. T. There still appears to him, after the corrections which have been stated, and the explanations which have been made, to be some difficulty in the passage.

P. 432. v. 787. 8. Κοινῆς τραπέζης πολλάκις τυχὼν ἐμοί,
Ξενίας τ' ἀριθμῷ πρῶτος ὢν ἐμῶν φίλων.

So Mr. Porson reads, instead of Ξ. τ' α. πρῶτα τῶν ε. φίλων. Ed. Ald. Without repeating the observations in our Review, we cannot forbear from presenting to the reader the following view of this passage, communicated by our correspondent T. T.

"Is it so clear, that any emendation is necessary here? That the Aldine reading: Ξενίας τ' ἀριθμῷ πρῶτα τῶν ἐμῶν φίλων, will not do? I would, by all means, join ξενίας τ' ἀριθμῷ, as Mr. Porson does, placing the comma after ἐμοί. Then may not the passage be understood and rendered, fairly and without straining? thus * : "He was often admitted to my table, and in the rank of hospitality, before (in preference to) my friends;" τυχὼν τραπέζης (ἀπὸ κοινοῦ) πρῶτα, ξενίας ἀριθμῷ, τῶν ε. φίλων. The word ἀριθμός must bear such a sense in Mr. Porson's reading. So Homer, Od. A. 448—μετ' ἀνδρῶν ἔξ ἀριθμῷ, He ranks with men.—Eustathius: ἐν ἀνδράσι τετακταις ΤΕΤΑΚΤΑΙ.—If τυχὼν τραπ. be thus understood, ἀπὸ κοινοῦ, it seems to me, that the "duo talentia membra" may naturally and without force, be connected, without the help of another participle."

P. 315. l. 21. for 'defender,' read *defence*.

P. 326. The Reviewer says: "Mr. Wakefield appears to suppose, that the *Casura* in *Iambics* is different from the *Casura* in *Heroics*." On this remark, T. T. has favoured us with some observations. He is of opinion that, in this instance also, we have not perfectly understood Mr. Wakefield's meaning. We shall freely transcribe the passage; as the first object of our critical researches has been always a desire to promote the united cause of *truth* and *literature*. If we have misrepresented the author of the *Diatribæ*, we sincerely regret a failure which

* I would assuredly keep to the proper sense of πρῶτα, as distinct from τὰ πρῶτα, according to the just remark of the Reviewer."

was not in the slightest degree intentional; and it is hoped that, if this be really the case, Mr. Wakefield will excuse it, and not attribute it to a wrong motive. The words of T. T. are to this purpose:

"I cannot but suggest a doubt, whether Mr. W. means to speak of the *Cesura* in his Canon? I observe, that, at least, in the passages which the M. R. quotes from his books, he does not use the word *Cesura*, nor the expression *Cesural pause*. He says: *Ob vim pause in syllaba postrema vocis*, &c. If he had meant the *Cesural* pause, he surely would have said at once: *Ob Cesuram*, or *ob vim Cesure*. His idea seems to be, that the last syllable of every word has (if I may use the expression,) a *pausing tendency* of itself as the conclusion of a word; that, when that last syllable falls upon any part of the verse, when the metre requires, and the ear expects it to be long, (as it does, when it falls upon the beginning of a foot in *Heroics*, and upon the end of a foot in *Iambics*) then this expectation assisted by the *pausing tendency* of the syllable, as ending a word, will pass the syllable upon the ear for long, though it be, in itself, short.

"This appears to be Mr. Wakefield's meaning. The observations in the Monthly Review are not to be controverted; but my only doubt is, whether all of them can be applied fairly to Mr. Wakefield." T. T.

We repeat that, if we have misrepresented Mr. Wakefield's meaning, we are extremely sorry for such misrepresentation: but we do assert, in the most unqualified manner, that Mr. W.'s position is totally ungrounded*, whether he supposes that the *Cesural* pause, or any other pause, can lengthen the short vowel in the last syllable of a word, merely because that syllable stands as the last syllable of a foot in the tragedies and comedies. We were induced to apply the term *Cesural* pause, from the following passage in Mr. Wakefield's *Silva Crit.* I. 81. where he censures the solicitude of Valckenæer and Musgrave respecting V. 234 of the *Hippolytus*.

Τὸ τὸδ αὖ παράφρον ἐπὶ τῆς ἰσπός,

* It must be mentioned that T. T. is of the same opinion. He thinks that Mr. W.'s canon is unfounded, but objects to our explanation of it as far as it relates to the term *Cesura*. He quotes the truly learned Dr. Clark's note on Il. A. V. 51. "*Etiā in fine vocis propter pausam quæ vox finitur, syllaba aliqui brevis produci potest: ut, Βελος ἐχέπειυκίς. Fit hoc præcipuè in Cesura, quia major ea incidit pronuntiationis ictus. Pleri tamen potest etiam extrâ Cæsuram, si consonans sit natura Durior et duplicari solita; vel Vocalis sequatur aspirata. Ut Ἀνδρῶν οἱ πρῶτος.*"

The same power is given to *Ο* in later poets than Homer, as may be seen in Apollonius Rhodius: but here the *Bentleian Digamma* interposes; and not any mere pause, Il. A. 72. apud Dawesium. Edit. Burgess. p. 436.

in which the *φρον*, he says, in *παράφρον*, is long "*ob hanc ipsam causam, vim scilicet pausæ in syllabâ postremâ vocis, si pedem finiat in Anapesticis et Iambicis, aut incipiat in Heroicis.*"

Now, that *pause* which lengthens the last syllable of a word, if it begins a foot, in Heroic verse, is always called the *Cesural pause*; and, as Mr. Wakefield makes no difference between *that pause* and *his οση pause*, to which he attributes a power of prolongating final syllables if they close a foot in Anapestics and Iambics, do we not seem justified in concluding that he denominated the two pauses, equally and in both situations, *CESURAL PAUSES*?

Again: in confirmation of our application, it must be observed that Mr. Wakefield asserts, in the same page, that, in this luckless verse of Sophocles, O. Tyr. 1279.

Ὅμορος χαλάζης αἰμονος ἔλεγέλο,

as he wishes to read it, instead of αἰμολος, Ed. Ald. "*Ultima vocis αἰμονος syllaba ob pausam in Sophocle producitur pari jure, quo Belos in Homero:*

Ἀνίας ἐπει' αὐτίσι ΒΕΛΟΣ ἐχέπυκας ἐφίπυς."

The final syllable in *Βελος*, avowedly and beyond dispute, is produced by the *Cesural pause*. Could we do otherwise, therefore, than conclude that Mr. Wakefield, according to his own statement, pronounced the final syllable in *αἰμονος* to be also lengthened by the *Cesural pause*?

On examining again the words of Mr. Wakefield, and his mode of reasoning on the subject, we do not feel inclined to retract our own statement of his decisions, nor to withdraw the arguments which we have advanced. We submit the whole, however, to the consideration of T. T. and our other learned readers.

P. 332—334. A most learned and truly diligent correspondent, P. has taken the trouble of verifying and correcting the numbers in the passages mentioned in the Index to Eustathius. We are obliged to him for the following alterations:

Hecuba: P. 332. line 5. which is the first of the Index. Vid. ad Il. N. 931. 37. L. 7. leg. 512. 31.—L. 8. pro K. leg. A.—L. 9. dele Il. A. 780. 38.—L. 17. add V. 258. Od. O. 304. 47.—L. 26. leg. Il. Z. 499. 6. R. P.—L. 28. add V. 451. Il. Z. 519. 32.—L. 29. add V. 559.—Il. A. 19. 45. l. 30. add V. 566.—Il. K. 718. 20. l. 31. add Il. E. 393. 27. 443. 36.—V. 603. Od. Δ. 431. 46. l. 41. post 49. add Od. E. 408. 51.—L. 42. add V. 823. Il. E. 974. 36.

P. 333. l. 3. add P. 409—35.—L. 5. add V. 925. Procm. 4. 18. L. 8. add V. 962. Il. B. 163. 37.

ORESTES. P. 333. L. 16. Erase the reference to V. 26. and add V. 36. Il. B. 139. 38.—L. 18. leg. E. 394.—L. 19. add after 4 R. P.—L. 22. add V. 162. Il. Δ. 332. 38.—L. 28. add in Il. Α. 778. 45. Od. &c.—L. 32. add V. 390. Il. A. 17. 6. and read, Α. 837. 23.—L. 33. add after 420. Il. Γ. 328. 45.—L. 36. add V. 696. Od. A. 27. 38.—L. 39. add after 909. Il. Δ. 356. 7.—L. 40. add after 21, R. P.

P. 334. l. 3. Read 46 for 461.—L. 10. for Il. T. 290. read Il. Γ. 290.

P. 431. L. 17. read ἀπέλθης καλαύσεις, the substantive, *accusat.* not καλαύσεις. *When you depart for your inn.*

P. 432. ΒΡΑΔΙΩΝ. This comparative is found in a fragment of Babrias, in *Edit. Tyrwhitti*, p. 15. civ.

Το μὲν βραδίων το δὲ ταχίων ἐμπιπτει.

In p. 432. we know not by whose stupendous incogitancy the words in V. 1148 of Eur. *Elect.* are jumbled out of their proper and intended places. Read :

Θύσεις γὰρ, δια δαίμοσιν θύειν σε χρεΐ.

This error, which we had corrected in our own copy, did not escape the notice of a correspondent who signs himself A YOUNG STUDENT. We beg him to accept our thanks for his modest and polite letter.

P. 443. l. 9. Read, 'the penultimate is *long* in the Tragedies,' instead of *short* *.—Let us take this opportunity of requesting the reader to alter the word *Hexameter* into *Pentameter*, in the Review of Mr. Butler's *Musurus*, Jan. 1798, Vol. xxv. p. 17. l. 10. in this passage.

Mr. Butler's twenty-fourth line also is not a Pentameter :

"*Eheu et præcipites in sua damna rapit.*"

where the printed copy gives *Hexameter*.

P. 435. l. 22. for 'long penultimate,' read; *short penultimate*. In the last line but four, of the quotation from Dawes, the word *severiores* is omitted.

P. 437. Note * for SOLION read SOTION; and in line 22. for *Γαστρὸς* read *Γαστήρος*. In this verse, however, T. T. objects to *οὐδ' ἴδιον ἐν*, as an emendation of a forced and awkward appearance. We have little to advance in its defence : but it seems, indeed, well worthy of a place in the IAMBICS of SOTION, an Alexandrian Grammarian.—The line itself, as it comes from such a witness, can never be allowed as substantial evidence in any cause, tried in the court of antient criticism.—The verse,

* These typographical errors, like some others, were observed by several of our correspondents.

whether in its present state or in a corrected form, must still be considered as an alien to the family of the Athenian Thalia.

In the passage from Suidas, T. T. adds that 'Ουδένων ὑπὲρ for ἢ οὐδένων answers better to the term ὑπερβιβάζοντες than the 'Ουδ' (*sic melius quàm* 'Ουχ) ὑφ' ἑνῶν of Photius, and Kaster's best MS. A. In this latter, indeed, there is a τμήσις as well as an ὑπερβιβασμός.

P. 438. 32. For Κερίων our correspondent P. proposes χέριων.—P. 439. 35. a YOUNG STUDENT doubts whether the article before ἀδρός be admissible. The Attic Poets certainly omit the article frequently; and in this very passage it might be suppressed. To its insertion, however, no just objection, we apprehend, can be raised.

P. 443. l. 12. The verses are not, indeed, in Clericus's collection of the fragments of Philemon: but he has given them to Menander on the authority of Stobæus, Grotii, p. 111. where ταχῆαν appears in the last line for ταχισον. This circumstance had escaped our recollection, when we transcribed the passage from Rutgersius, which we must confess accidentally met our eye, while we were writing that part of the article which relates to the comparatives in ION.—The learned reader, therefore, it is hoped, will excuse the oversight; and will permit us to solicit his indulgence when he discovers any other blunders or misconceptions, which may have escaped our own researches, and the penetration of those scholars who have favoured us with remarks: to whom many thanks are due for their communications.

ART. XIV. *A Second Walk through Wales*, by the Rev. Richard Warner, of Bath, in August and September 1798. 8vo. pp. 365. 8s. Boards. Dilly. 1799.

NOT discouraged by past fatigues, Mr. Warner has again sallied forth, accoutred with scrip and staff; and, in a brisk walk of 700 miles, performed in less than six weeks, he has traversed almost every county in North and South Wales. The character which we gave (see M. Rev. for May 1798, vol. xxvi. p. 9.) of Mr. W.'s first expedition will apply, with very little variation, to his 'Second Walk.' The reflections, which are not less abundant in this than in the former tour, are little recommended by novelty of idea or by strength of sentiment; and, whether it be that criticism impairs the risible faculties, or that the mirth of Mr. W. is not of a sufficiently communicable quality, we feel no irresistible impulse to join in the laugh, when he is disposed to be jocular.

The most valuable parts of Mr. W.'s communications are his remarks on the state of husbandry in Wales; and his descriptions and accounts of the present state of some of the manufactories and mines, which he found time to visit in his tour. He has been aware that "authors, before they write, should read;" and his page is occasionally enriched with the fruits of his researches into the labours of those who have written on the same country.—This practice, however, though useful in all works, and in many indispensable, has limits which are not very indistinct; it is clearly not allowable to give extracts of several pages in length, unless from very scarce books:—but this Mr. W. has done; and, in one instance, on a subject by no means necessarily connected with his descriptions. The ballad of *the Boy and the Mantle*, as modernized in Dr. Percy's collection, is transcribed entire; because, says Mr. W. 'it is so humorous, and exhibits such a contrast (with respect to the discretion of its ladies) between the court of Caerleon and those of modern times, that I cannot refrain from borrowing it from its very learned editor.' He has substituted Caerleon for Carleile in the first verse, according to an idea, which Dr. Percy originally entertained, but afterward abandoned.

The following extract is from the author's account of a visit to the Holywell lead mine:

'The entrance lies at the bottom of a hill near the town, and is called a *water level*; a subterraneous passage, or canal, penetrating the mountain to the distance of nearly seventeen hundred yards, cut through the solid rock, six feet high and four feet wide. The water, which is a running stream, and discharges itself at the mouth of the level, forms a channel of nearly three feet deep, navigated by boats long, narrow, and flat, sharp at each end, and forced up and down the level by the workmen pushing with their hands against the sides of the rock.

'This great work was undertaken about twenty-four years ago, by a company of gentlemen who have continued it with unremitting perseverance. After having penetrated the rock for six hundred yards, the workmen met with a vein of ore that produced eighty tons, but, except this discovery, they found nothing to repay the expences of driving the level (amounting to 6000 l.) till about four years since, when they struck upon another vein of great thickness, which they have not yet exhausted. Six men are constantly employed in continuing this subterraneous passage.

'Seating ourselves in such a boat as I have described, and carrying a lighted candle in the hand of each, we entered the level. For one hundred yards, the rock exhibits lime-stone, intermixed with much calcareous spar; the next five hundred yards consist of chert or petrosilex, quantities of which are sent into Staffordshire for the use of the potteries. At this point, the rock changes again and becomes a hard lime-

lime-stone. Continuing our voyage for one thousand one hundred yards from the mouth of the level, we reached a large natural cavern on the left hand, humorously called by our conductor "the hotel," being the scene of his hospitality when he conducts any of his friends through these subterraneous regions. From one side of this vast hollow, a passage or cut in the rock branches off into the mountain, nearly at right angles with the level. The entrance is an elegant gothic arch, (thrown accidentally into this form) hewn through a vast bed of quartz, which reflecting and refracting the rays of our tapers, and being beautifully variegated with the tinges of sulphur and other minerals, displayed a specimen of natural architecture that exceeded all the efforts of art.—

'We spent four hours in the bowels of the mountain, and threaded a number of its passages, yet so numerous are the cuts that have been made, and the shafts sunk in search of the mineral, by the persevering spirit of the firm to which the work belongs, that Mr. Edwards (the agent of the mine) assured us, we had not visited a tenth part of the excavations in our expedition.'

The products of the Holywell-level-mine are, limestone, chert, lead-ore, calamine, and a species of zinc called '*Blende* or *Black Jack*.'

Among other accounts of accidents which have happened in the mines in this neighbourhood, the author relates that,

'Not more than two or three years since, the roof of a mine gave way so suddenly, that a poor workman was instantly overwhelmed with the foundering earth. Standing fortunately at this time under a mass of rock, he escaped being immediately crushed to death; but as there were many thousand tons of earth above him, the melancholy prospect of certain destruction, by means the most lingering and terrible, still presented itself to him. When the accident happened he had half a pound of candles in his hand, and upon this, and the trickling water that distilled through the cracks of the rock, he subsisted nine days, until his faithful companions, who, with anxious solicitude that does honour to humanity, worked incessantly (spell and spell) for nine days and as many nights, at length reached, and liberated him from the horrible prison in which he was immured.'

In this volume, Mr. Warner corrects a mistake respecting Caernarvon Castle, in his account of his former walk. As an extract from that part of his work appeared in our Review, we shall now give the correction:

'I then remarked, that much of the effect of the ruin was lost by "its being inhabited, and the littleness of a cottager's domestic economy appearing within its walls." I have since discovered I was mistaken in this respect; and as it is much more honourable to acknowledge an error than to persist in it, I have no hesitation in telling you, there is no residence within the gate of the Castle, and that my companion and self were led to suppose it was inhabited, by observing a quantity of clothes drying on the green-sward of its courts.'

Mr.

Mr. Warner has continued the custom, adopted in his former volume, of marking the route by a small engraving at the head of each letter. The work is also ornamented by two acqua-tinta picturesque views, neatly executed.

ART. XV. *A Supplemental *Apology for the Believers in the Shakspeare Papers*: being a Reply to Mr. Malone's Answer, which was early announced, but *never published*: with a Dedication to George Steevens, F. R. S. S. A.; and a Postscript to T. J. Mathias, F. R. S. S. A. the Author of the *Pursuits of Literature*. By George Chalmers, F. R. S. S. A. 8vo. pp. 654. 7s. Boards. Egerton. 1799.

NOTWITHSTANDING the pains which Mr. Chalmers has bestowed on the vindication of the 'believers' in Mr. Ireland's Papers, he is not himself a true believer in the reputed remains of Shakspeare. He has merely taken the opportunity of this dispute to let fall his "*lead en mace*," as he borrows the words from the author of the *Pursuits of Literature*, on some wits and critics whom he considers as inclined to disturb his repose. Accordingly, he stalks through the ranks of his opponents, with the intrepidity of Spenser's Talus; and if he do not exert all the vigour of that allegorical personage, it must be allowed that he is not deficient in labour and enterprize. His adversaries may well be supposed to expect, that

"The lead yon Critic's quill contains
Is destined to beat out their brains."

We apprehend, however, that the impartial reader will be the greatest sufferer in this doughty fray; and that, after having endured the shock of Mr. C.'s ponderous authorities, quotations, and inferences, he will be nearly as much stunned as the wicked wits on whom the apologist's leaden implement has been flattened in hostility.

All human abilities have their appointed boundaries. Mr. C., we believe, is accurate in his dates, indefatigable in the investigation of manuscripts, correct in all definitions which can be supplied by Johnson's Dictionary, and, as Eachard says, "an arch knave at a nominative case." These are very useful and distinguishing characters for a controversial writer: but they are of little avail in literary contests, when unaccompanied by taste; a quality of which this author seems to possess a very moderate share. His lot, as a labourer in books, seems indeed to have fallen on barren places; of the numerous quotations

* For our account of Mr. Chalmers's *Apology*, see M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxii. p. 356.

which

which diversify his pages, there are few which interest by their elegance; on the contrary, the majority of them are disgusting by their harshness, or repulsive by their obscurity. All tend, however, to the conviction and punishment of the *unbelievers*; against whom the author seems animated with a spark from the fire of his countryman Gavin Douglas: in whose energetic language, Mr. C. might thus have spoken of his intricate researches:

"Nyce Lauborynth, quhare Mynotaure the bul
Was kept, had never sa feile cahutis and wayis:
I drede men clepe them fabillis now on dais,
THARFOR WALD GOD I HAD THARE ERIS * TO PULL,
Misknawis the *crede*, and threpiis uthir forwayis †."

The Prologue of the thyrd Booke of *Escadæ*.

From the same repository of learning and wisdom, we shall draw a marginal note, which we beg leave to recommend to the attention of all those whom it may concern. "Invyous † personnyis can do nothyng against good men, but bark and chyd, apd with that schaw § ther awine || fulyshnes. Good men with wysdom tempereth theyr tonges."

Such was the opinion of the worthy Bishop of Dunkeld; and who shall blame him, when he desired to wring the ears of his enemies? They were men perhaps who would not become 'believers' in the mythology of Virgil; who doubted the authenticity of the Sibyl's leaves; and who even suspected that there might be interpolations in the works of the Poet.—Let not our readers imagine that we are turning Mr. Chalmers's arms against himself; the work from which we quote is pure silver, only discoloured by age:—but, if the samples of antient dulness, which our author intended for the ornament of his book, should produce small delight to the supine race of modern readers, he has accumulated materials which cannot fail to interest the zealous Antiquary. It would far exceed our limits, to follow his researches through the wide range of inquiry which he has undertaken; we shall only make a few remarks on some passages which have particularly struck us.

The much-contested subject of Shakspeare's Sonnets is one of the first points discussed. Mr. Chalmers labours to prove that they were written in imitation of Spenser's *Amoretti*, and were addressed to Queen Elizabeth. We are not satisfied with the latter part of his opinion. The custom of poets, which was general in the sixteenth century, of addressing love-

* cars.

† errors.

‡ envious.

§ shew.

|| own.

verses to ideal mistresses, obviates the difficulties started by Mr. C. against the supposition that the Sonnets were composed for a lady beneath the regal dignity.—The love of hypothesis has led him to attempt an explanation of the 20th Sonnet, in a manner which is not consistent with sound criticism :

“ A woman's face, with nature's own hand painted,
Hast thou, the master-mistress of my passion ;
A woman's gentle heart, but not acquainted
With shifting change, as is false women's fashion ;
An eye, more bright than theirs, less false in rolling,
Gilding the object, whereupon it gazeth ;
A man in hue, all hues in his [the hue] controuling
Which [hue] steals mens eyes, and womens souls amazeth.
And, for a woman wert thou first created,
Till nature, as she wrought thee, fell a-doting,
And, by addition, me of thee defeated,
By adding one thing, to my purpose, nothing :
But, since she [nature] prickt thee out for women's pleasure ;
Mine, be thy love, and thy love's use their treasure *.”

“ Such

* The *master mistress*, which has given such offence, and raised such prejudices, only means, *Chiefest* : Minshew says, *Maister*, in one sense, signifies *Chief* ; so, Johnson says it signifies *Chief*, head ; as Master-gunner from Shakspear, Master-piece, masterful : in the *Menæchmi*, 1595, it is said, “ Young Women are so *masterful*” [Capel's Notes, 3 v. p. 466.] *Hew*, as I have already shown, was the appropriate word for *mien*, in that age ; a man in hue, or *mien*, is the same thought, as Spenser's just description of Elizabeth's *Air*, her *lofty pride* : she was a man, in hue : in the *Princely Pleasures of Kenilworth Castle*, it is said ;

“ But tydings of our English Queene,
Whom heaven hath deck'd with hewes.”

• The Creation of woman is thus described in Silvester's *Dubartas* :

“ Source of all joys ! Sweet he-she-coupled-one !
Thy *sacred* birth, I never think upon,
But, ravis'd, I admire how God did, then,
Make *two* of *one*, and *one* of *two* again.”

• The thought of the *doting* of Nature, Shakspeare borrowed from Sydney's *Arcadia*, 439 :

“ O nature ! *doting old* ; O blind, dead Nature !”

To *prick* is often used by Shakspeare for to *mark*, as indeed the word is used sometimes at present : the King, every year, *pricks* the List of Sheriffs, with a golden bodkin. But, since nature marked thee out for the *pleasure*, which belongs to woman ; let mine be *thy love*, “ That love, which *virtue* begs, and *virtue* grants ;” and thy *love's use* the *treasure* of other women ; *now chastity* is the appropriate treasure of women.—It will, after all, be asked, what *additional* circumstance

"Such another proof would make" Shakspeare "cry
haa!" —

This process would deduce any conclusion from any premises, to the utter confusion of reason and fact.

We observe the same unfortunate distortion of a very plain passage, in p. 71.

"For where is she so fair, whose unear'd womb
Disdain the tillage of *thy husbandry*?
Or, who is he, so fond, will be the tomb
Of his self-love, to stop posterity?"

This *husbandry*, Mr. Chalmers explains to be Queen Elizabeth's celibacy; a construction which the words will not bear. If any explanation of the phrase be wanting, it may be found in Measure for Measure;

"As those that feed, grow full; as blossoming Time
That from the seedness, the bare fallow brings
To teeming foison, so her plenteous womb
Expresseth his full *tilth* and *husbandry*."

Thus the authority of Shakspeare himself completely overthrows Mr. C.'s conjecture concerning this Sonnet.

It is the misfortune of system, that it perceives no improbabilities. When a writer has once determined that all Shakspeare's Sonnets must relate to the same subject, and must be addressed to the same person, he will violate every rule of language in order to maintain his position. It would be much better to admit that there are obscurities in these Pieces,

stance was it, which nature, in her *doting*, superadded, and which defeated the poet from possessing his *master-mistress*? I will not shrink from the question, whatever may be its difficulty. In the mythology of Spenser, and Shakspeare, Elizabeth was sprung of *heavenly race*:

"Of fair Eliza, be your silver song
That blessed wight;
The flower of virgins, may she flourish long,
In princely plight:
For she is Syrix daughter, without pot;
Which Pan, the Shepherds God, of her begot:
So sprung her Grace
Of *heavenly race*,
No mortal blemish may her blot."

'Now; the *no mortal blemish* of Spenser, and the *one thing* of Shakspeare, when properly compared with the context, convey the same meaning; and lead the intelligent inquirer to infer, that it was the divine origin, or high birth, of his *master-mistress*, which was the additional circumstance, that dashed all his hopes: for, she was only a man in *huc*; and she was more than a woman, by *addition*.'

which

which cannot be fairly explained, in consequence of their allusion to some private circumstances long since forgotten.—Few persons of good taste will regret those obscurities, in poems so greatly inferior to the other productions of Shakspeare; and for which his name alone can now procure a single reader.

In p. 107, we perceive that Mr. Chalmers has quoted a passage from Anton, to prove the existence of balloons in the age of Elizabeth; this interpretation has excited our surprize; because the original words are certainly expressive of a game at ball; the modern term, *balloon*, was taken from the French word *ballon*, which means simply a ball for pastime.

Much curious information is given respecting the history of the Stage, and the office of the Master of the Revels: but it is weakened by the Johnsonian affectation with which it is imparted. The following account of the opening of the Theatres, after the plague of London, in 1636, is certainly too much calculated to elevate and surprize:

‘ But, they were only opened to be shut, ere long, by a power, which was full as destructive as pestilence. The Ruler of the Revels could exert little authority, when his subjects were dispersed and his realms annihilated. Anarchy is sure to enfeeble, if it do not destroy authority. The re-establishment of his ancient jurisdiction, did not re-establish his power, even after the restoration had recalled the sovereign, and given energy to the laws. The Master of the Revels, while his power was opposed, felt himself unsupported: and he was thus induced to retire to the quiet of the country, and the enjoyment of his domain, from a scene, which he could neither rule, nor influence. Advanced to a mellow age, Sir Henry Herbert died, in 1673; having governed, almost half a century, with sound discretion, a

“ ——— Calm region once,

And full of peace, now tost and turbulent.”

The chronology of Shakspeare's plays is discussed at considerable length, and light is certainly thrown upon the subject: but we cannot agree with Mr. C. in the application of all the passages, which he has indicated as alluding to some political events of the times. Throughout this portion of the volume, so many attacks on his adversaries are intermingled, that a perpetual skirmish is supported; to the annoyance of the reader, who cannot receive his information in peace and quietness.

The Postscript of this Miscellany contains an attack on a gentleman, whom Mr. C. considers as the author of the *Pursuits of Literature*. On this question we deem it unnecessary to give any opinion.

We have dismissed this volume with a cursory criticism, because it relates chiefly to Mr. Chalmers's literary enmities, with which we have nothing to do; and which the public would scarcely thank us for discussing, if we had taken any interest in them.

ART.

ART. XVI. *Modern Infidelity considered with respect to its Influence on Society*: in a Sermon preached at the Baptist Meeting, Cambridge. By Robert Hall, A. M. 8vo. pp. 81. 2s. Button, &c. 1800.

SINGLE sermons are seldom of such importance as to require long or laborious criticisms:—but their extraordinary merit, or the peculiar circumstances of their publication, or the great reputation of their authors, may sometimes entitle them to much more notice than voluminous works. The reputation of the author of the discourse before us is not yet perhaps such as will confer importance on his sermon, though, if he proceeds in the course which he has here so honourably begun, his name will, in our opinion, one day occupy no mean rank among the writers of the present age: but, as far as philosophy and eloquence can make a publication important, and as far as very peculiar circumstances can render it interesting, certainly no sermon of our times merits a more elaborate criticism than that of Mr. Hall.

A new sect of infidels has arisen in this age, who, with a boldness unknown to their predecessors, not only reject religion as *false*, but condemn it as *pernicious*. The great majority of former unbelievers were so far from denying its *usefulness*, that they represented it as an invention of statesmen for the very purpose of giving aid to morality, and efficacy to the laws:—but some of our modern infidels declare open war against every principle and form of religion, natural as well as revealed, as hostile to morality, and therefore destructive of the happiness of the human race. This extravagant and detestable paradox, which long lay neglected in the forgotten volumes of Cardan and Spinoza, is now revived and disseminated by men who possess the dangerous art of making paradoxes popular. Notwithstanding its evident and monstrous absurdity, it has gained many proselytes on the Continent of Europe; and a few, we fear, even in this fortunate island: which, as it was the first country that was seized with the disease of infidelity, was the first also which was completely cured of that pestilential malady. Against this new sect a most vigorous and formidable attack is made in the sermon before us, by Mr. Hall, the pastor of a dissenting congregation at Cambridge; who, in his preface, most earnestly deprecates all contentions between different sects of Christians, in the presence of the common enemy; and who speaks of his being a dissenter only as a motive for generous emulation, and for vying with the church in zeal and vigour in defence of our common Christianity, in imitation of the example of the ablest and most virtuous dissenters of former times.

• When

.. ' When at the distance of more than half a century, Christianity was assaulted by a Woolston, a Tindal, and a Morgan, it was ably supported both by clergymen of the established church, and writers among protestant dissenters; the labours of a Clarke and a Butler, were associated with those of a Doddridge, a Leland, and a Lardner, with such equal reputation and success, as to make it evident that the intrinsic excellence of religion needs not the aid of external appendages; but that, with or without a dowry, her charms are of equal force to fix and engage the heart.'

Happy will it be if this passage shall produce its proper effects, both on the dissenters, and on the clergy of the establishment; if it shall animate the former to a noble rivalry of exertion in the general cause of religion; and if it shall dispose the latter to view dissenters no longer with suspicion on account of theological differences of inferior moment, and of *supposed* political differences, but to regard them with the affection which is due to fellow Christians, and fellow soldiers in the army of religion and of truth. Unfortunate animosities and fatal suspicions have arisen between them, from causes which were perhaps irresistible. Neither party, probably, is entirely blameless.—If the dissenters, following the example of Mr. Hall, will sacrifice the pride of a sect to the cause of religion, they will at least have the merit of making a fair experiment on the temper of the church; and it will be ascertained whether the established clergy of our days will receive the successors of Leland and Lardner, as these illustrious men were received by the most distinguished prelates of their times. We have no doubt that the experiment would be successful, and that the result of such an amicable struggle would be a new triumph for Christianity, both in the defeat of her enemies, and in the closer union of all her children; in the establishment of Christian truth, and in the diffusion of Christian charity: so that infidelity may at length not only be exposed, but shamed and silenced, and those sects which continue to differ in inferior questions of opinion and discipline may at least agree in forbearance and mutual kindness. Mr. Hall has shewn the example to his brethren, and held out the invitation to those from whom he dissents. He has done his duty to his country and to his religion, and he has done it nobly. Let us hope that he has not sown his seed in a barren soil.

The object of this discourse will be best understood from the words of the author:

' Animated by numbers and emboldened by success, the infidels of the present day have given a new direction to their efforts, and impressed a new character on the ever growing mass of their impious speculations.

' By uniting more closely with each other, by giving a sprinkling of irreligion to all their literary productions, they aim to engross the
formation

formation of the public mind, and amidst the warmest professions of attachment to virtue, to effect an entire disruption of morality from religion. Pretending to be the teachers of virtue and the guides of life, they propose to revolutionize the morals of mankind, to regenerate the world by a process entirely new, and to rear the temple of virtue, not merely without the aid of religion, but on the renunciation of its principles and the derision of its sanctions. Their party has derived a great accession of numbers and strength, from events the most momentous and astonishing in the political world, which have divided the sentiments of Europe betwixt hope and terror, and, however they may issue, have, for the present, swelled the ranks of infidelity. So rapidly indeed has it advanced since this crisis, that a great majority on this continent, and a considerable proportion in England, of those who pursue literature as a profession, may justly be considered as the open or disguised abettors of Atheism.

With respect to the sceptical and religious systems, the inquiry at present is not so much which is the truest in speculation, as which is the most useful in practice; or, in other words, whether morality will be best promoted, by considering it as part of a great and comprehensive law, emanating from the will of a supreme, omnipotent legislator; or as a mere expedient adapted to our present situation, enforced by no other motives than those which arise from the prospects and interests of the present state.

After having urged, with irresistible force, the arguments which prove that, without the belief of a future state, virtue never can be the universal and invariable, though it may be the common and usual, interest of men; Mr. Hall proceeds to shew that unbelief has a tendency to produce that state in which the greatest conceivable number of atrocious crimes, and the smallest possible number of heroic acts of virtue, may reasonably be expected. He concludes his observations on this momentous subject with a passage which we cannot refrain from laying before our readers:

‘In affirming that infidelity is unfavourable to the higher class of virtues, we are supported as well by facts as by reasoning. We should be sorry to load our adversaries with unmerited reproach; but to what history, to what record, will they appeal, for any traits of moral greatness, any sacrifice of interest or life, any instances of daring heroic virtues exhibited by their disciples? Where shall we look for the trophies of infidel magnanimity, or atheistical virtue? Not that we mean to accuse them of inactivity: they have recently filled the world with the fame of their exploits; exploits of a different kind indeed, but of imperishable memory and disastrous lustre.

‘Though it is confessed, great and splendid actions are not the ordinary employment of life, but must, from their nature, be reserved for high and eminent occasions, yet, that system is essentially defective which leaves no room for their cultivation. They are important, both from their immediate advantage and their remoter influence. They often save, and always illustrate, the age and nation in which they appear. They raise the standard of morals; arrest

the progress of degeneracy; and diffuse a lustre over the paths of life. They are noble monuments of the greatness of the human soul; and present to the world the august image of virtue in her sublimest form, from whence streams of light and glory issue to remote times and ages; while their commemoration, by the pen of historians and poets, excites a noble emulation, and awakens in distant bosoms the sparks of kindred excellence.

Combine the frequent and familiar perpetration of atrocious deeds, with the dearth of great and generous actions, and you have the exact picture of that condition of society, which completes the degradation of the species; the frightful contrast of dwarfish virtues and gigantic vices, where every thing that is good is mean and stunted in its growth, and every thing evil is rank and luxuriant; a sickening uniformity prevails, and the soul asserts its native grandeur only in volcanic eruptions of anarchy and crime.

Though Mr. Hall, however, in our opinion, has victoriously established his principle with respect to this part of the subject, he is with reason convinced that the *indirect* influence of religion, as it enters into our sentiments and forms our character, is much more extensive and important than its *direct* influence, as arising from a deliberate regard to the happiness or misery of another life, and from its fitness to fill up that chasm which must always exist in every scheme of moral reasoning that is founded merely on the utility of virtue in the present world. It is on the subject of the *indirect* influence of religion, that he has chiefly displayed all the powers of his vigorous understanding, and all the stores of his richly endowed mind. It is here that he exhibits an union of comprehensive philosophy with animated and splendid eloquence, of which few other examples are to be found. It is here, on a subject which has been discussed and (it might have been thought) exhausted by the greatest men of many successive ages, that Mr. Hall has given the most decisive proof of his genius, by many arguments and reflections which are at once original, just, and profound. Those who are familiar with moral discussions know the extreme difficulty of producing even a *new paradox*, on subjects which have so often and so long employed all the powers of the human understanding. It is easy for men of sense to deliver very important moral truths, if they will content themselves with repeating and enforcing what has been often said before; which we are far from denying to be very useful, and indeed absolutely necessary. It is possible, though not easy, for men of ingenuity, if they merely seek singularity, and throw off all regard to truth and the interests of mankind, to discover some new path in the wilderness of error, which no former hunter of paradoxes had explored. To be *original* and *just*, however, is on all subjects very difficult; and it is a mark of the highest superiority

superiority of understanding, when displayed on a subject which seemed so nearly exhausted as the connection between morality and religion.—We select the following passage in justification of our criticism; not as being the most splendid; but as being the most easily separable from the body of the discourse:

‘ The exclusion of a supreme Being and of a superintending Providence, tends directly to the destruction of moral taste. It robs the universe of all finished and consummate excellence, even in idea. The admiration of perfect wisdom and goodness, for which we are formed, and which kindles such unspeakable rapture in the soul, finding in the regions of scepticism nothing to which it corresponds, droops and languishes. In a world which presents a fair spectacle of the order and beauty of a vast family nourished and supported by an almighty Parent; in a world which leads the devout mind, step by step, to the contemplation of the first fair and the first good, the sceptic is encompassed with nothing but obscurity, meanness and disorder.

‘ When we reflect on the manner in which the idea of Deity is formed, we must be convinced that such an idea intimately present to the mind, must have a most powerful effect in refining the moral taste. Composed of the richest elements, it embraces in the character of a beneficent Parent and almighty Ruler, whatever is venerable in wisdom, whatever is awful in authority, whatever is touching in goodness.

‘ Human excellence is blended with many imperfections, and seen under many limitations; it is beheld only in detached and separate portions, nor ever appears in any one character whole and entire: so that, if we wish, in imitation of the Stoics, to form out of these fragments the notion of a perfectly wise and good man, we know it is a mere abstraction, a fiction of the mind, without any real Being in whom it is embodied and realized. In the belief of a Deity these conceptions are reduced to reality: the scattered rays of an ideal excellence are concentrated and become the real attributes of that Being with whom we stand in the nearest relation, who sits supreme at the head of the universe, is armed with infinite power, and pervades all nature with his presence.

‘ The efficacy of these sentiments, in producing and augmenting a virtuous taste, will indeed be proportioned to the vividness with which they are formed, and the frequency with which they recur; yet some benefit will not fail to result from their existence, even in their lowest degree.

‘ The idea of a supreme Being, has this peculiar property, that as it admits of no substitute, so from the first moment it is impressed, it is capable of continual growth and enlargement. God himself is immutable; but our conception of his character is continually receiving fresh accessions, is continually growing more extended and refulgent, by having transferred upon it new perceptions of beauty and goodness, by attracting to itself, as a centre, whatever bears the impress of dignity, order or happiness. It borrows splendour from

all that is fair, subordinates to itself all that is great, and sits enthroned on the riches of the universe.'

After some excellent observations on the spirit of heathenism, and on the tendency even of the most corrupt systems of religion to keep alive some sense of duty, Mr. Hall thus concludes:

'Revelation, by displaying the true character of God, affords a pure and perfect standard of virtue; heathenism, one in many respects defective and vicious; the fashionable scepticism of the present day, which excludes the belief of all superior powers, affords no standard at all. Human nature knows nothing better or higher than itself. All above and around it are shrouded in darkness; the virtues have no room to expand by the prospect being confined to the tame realities of life; nor are any excursions permitted into that unseen world, the true element of the great and good, by which virtue is fortified with motives equally calculated to satisfy the reason, to delight the fancy, and to impress the heart.'

Among the many admirable passages in this discourse, there is none which we have read with more pleasure than the observations on the institution of marriage, and on that important part of morality which relates to the intercourse of the sexes: but we are concerned to observe in it a misconception (for we are persuaded that it is not a misrepresentation) of the sentiments of an ingenious writer. Mr. Hall remarks:

'The aim of all the leading champions of infidelity is, to rob mankind of these benefits, and throw them back into a state of gross and brutal sensuality. Mr. Hume asserts adultery to be but a slight offence *when known*; *when secret*, no crime at all. In the same spirit, he represents the private conduct of the profligate Charles, whose debaucheries polluted the age, as a just subject of panegyric. A disciple in the same school has lately had the unblushing effrontery to stigmatise marriage as the worst of all monopolies; and in a narrative of his licentious amours, to make a formal apology for departing from his principles, by submitting to its restraints. The popular productions on the continent, which issue from the atheistical school, are incessantly directed to the same purpose.'

As to some of the writers on whom Mr. Hall has animadverted in this passage, we abandon them to his just severity: but he has certainly mistaken the opinions of Mr. Hume. It is very true that, as an historian, Mr. Hume has not spoken with great harshness of the softer vices: but, as a moral philosopher, he has everywhere blamed them as injurious to society. The sentiment which Mr. Hall ascribes to him is not given as his own, but as a quotation from La Fontaine; and it is not mentioned by Mr. Hume as a maxim of morality, but as descriptive of the dissolute manners of France:—
"Quand on le sait, c'est peu de chose; quand on ne le sait pas, ce n'est rien." This is a mistake which ought to be corrected in a future edition of the sermon.

Here

Here our extracts and observations must terminate; not for want of subject, but for want of room. If we were to indulge our own feelings, without regard to the limits of our Review, we should scarcely know when to finish our extracts, or how to bound our praises. This sermon, indeed, is in every respect entitled to rank among the first productions of the age. It is distinguished by solid and profound philosophy; the very reverse of that sorry and shallow sophistry which has of late usurped the name. It breathes a spirit of humility, piety, and charity; worthy of that pure and divine religion, to the defence of which the author has consecrated his talents. His eloquence is not a puny and gaudy bauble, fashioned by the tools and tricks of a mechanical rhetorician; it is the natural effusion of a fertile imagination, of an ardent mind, and of a heart glowing with zeal for truth, with reverence for God, and with love for men. His style is easy, various, and animated; not free indeed from those petty incorrectnesses, which seem to be scarcely separable from natural composition, but perfectly exempt from affectation,—a blemish far more unpardonable than negligence, and into which those who too studiously avoid carelessness have in general been too liable to fall. On a review of all his various excellencies, we cannot but expect with confidence that the name of Mr. Hall will be placed by posterity with the illustrious names of Paley and of Watson, among the best writers of the age; as well as the most vigorous defenders of religious truth, and the brightest examples of Christian charity.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1800.

FRANCE.

Art. 17. *Copies of Original Letters from the French Army in Egypt.*
Part III. English Translation. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Wright:
1800.

IN our Reviews for February and June, 1799, we duly noticed the 1st and 2d parts of the collection which is here continued; and of which, with respect to the authenticity of its materials, the editor now makes the following mention:

‘The letters and dispatches, of which the following are copies, have been recently intercepted, on their passage from Egypt to France, by the British Squadron in the Mediterranean; and have since been printed here by authority of government.—They are reprinted in their present shape by the editors of the two former collections, on the same subject, for the more general information of the public.

* These letters, and indeed the whole of those from among which they are selected, are addressed; either to the late French Government, or to different individuals composing it: and are evidently the first that have been sent from the remnant of the French army in Egypt, since the desertion of General Bonaparte.*

Admitting the authenticity of the whole collection, which we see no room for questioning, here are undoubtedly many documents of high importance, and fraught with not a little entertainment. We shall not, however, attempt to analyze the contents of a pamphlet which will have such general circulation.

Art. 18. *Memoir of the Operations of the Army of the Danube, under the Command of General Jourdan, 1799.* Taken from the MSS. of that Officer. Translated from the French. 8vo. 4s. sewed, Debrett. 1799.

General Jourdan's motive for this publication will fully appear from the following preface:

'Persecuted by injustice, exposed to the most atrocious calumnies, attacked in his honour—which is so dear to a man who has any sentiment of dignity, and to a republican; I yield, with extreme reluctance, to the wishes of my friends.—I have at length resolved on the painful task of giving a faithful account, and throwing a new light on my military operations.—How could I believe it possible that I should ever be suspected? But in a time of general corruption—daring villany is too successful in its wish to blast and poison every thing around it. A people who have been so long betrayed scarce feel any other sentiment than that of suspicion. They have seen so much perfidy, and been surrounded with such various enemies, that they no longer believe they have any faithful defenders. In the midst of such a confusion of opinions, the virtuous man would experience real discouragement, if he were not supported by the testimony of his conscience, and the hope of making truth triumphant.—If I stood alone, I should brave the utmost efforts of calumny: but my silence would be a crime, if it should deprive the brave troops who fought under my command, and those officers who have distinguished themselves both by their talents and their courage, of the justice due to them. Motives less powerful than these would not have induced me to violate the law I had imposed on myself, to delay the publication of my *Memoirs* till the return of peace.

'This small part of them, which the misfortunes of the time bring from me, will give a triumphant answer to the false assertions of the Ex-director Reubell; who, in order to palliate the vices of a monstrous administration, had the audacity to declare, from the tribune of the Council of Elders,—“We have entrusted great military power, more extensive than the Republic ever possessed in former times; nor can it have been otherwise, since the very wreck of them has so imposing an aspect.—These means have been confided to some men, who have been successful till now, and whom fortune has abandoned; and to others whose glory has been tarnished by misfortunes, but not effaced:—we may still hope that glory will re-attach itself to their car.”

'This

* This Memoir will, I hope, impose silence on those base spirits who accuse, for the sake of accusing, as well as those violent and wicked men, who would bear down integrity and virtue; by the weight of that hatred and abhorrence which they alone deserve. It will annihilate the reports which have been circulated concerning me,—that I almost entirely destroyed the army; that I placed the conscripts in the advanced posts, and ordered them to be shot. A revolting absurdity,—that the most atrocious malice could alone imagine. The candid reader will be easily convinced, that I have done much more than could be reasonably expected from the feeble power entrusted to me; and that I never ceased to demand a force proportioned to the enemy. He will also perceive, that the disasters of our armies are the sole work of the Directors, who ordered the Generals to fight, without affording them the means to insure victory.

The General's defensive narrative is drawn up in that plain and open manner which well befits the manly character of a soldier; and which, in the present instance, has given us a very favorable opinion of the writer's military talents and of his integrity.

IRELAND.

Art. 19. *Misconceptions of Facts, and Mis-statements of the Public Accounts, &c.* by the R. H. John Foster, Speaker of the Irish House of Commons, revised and corrected, according to official Documents, and authentic evidence of the Inspector General of Great Britain. By the Rev. Dr. Clarke, Chaplain in Ordinary to his R. H. the Prince of Wales. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1799.

This tract is given to the public as a *second appendix* to "Union or Separation." The first appendix has not fallen into our hands; and it seems probable that Dr. C.'s tract entitled *Union or Separation* has likewise escaped the vigilance of our collector. We find, however, a tract bearing that title, but with the name of "R. Farrel;" which, possibly, was a signature assumed at that time by Dr. C. This writer is likewise the author of one or two other tracts in support of the union; and in our apprehension he ranks among the most able champions on that side of the question. In justice to his character as a gentleman, it may not be improper to add that, while he defeats the *misconceptions* of Mr. Foster, he treats his Right Honorable opponent with every mark of respect and decorum due to his character, and allowed by all parties.

Art. 20. *A Reply to the Speech delivered in the Irish House of Commons, Jan. 15, 1800, by Mr. Grattan, on the Subject of a Legislative Union.* By an Absentee. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard.

We are here made to see the celebrated Mr. Grattan dragged through the kennel of party-virulence: but, to such an exhibition, was it worth while, (in such times too,) to call the attention of the public?

Art. 21. *A Proposal for uniting the Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1800.

A prefixed advertisement informs us that this proposal was first laid before the public in the year 1751.—Accordingly, we find it noticed in the 4th vol. of the *Monthly Review*, printed in that year, p. 348. An union of the two kingdoms was then in contemplation, among other politicians besides the author of this *proposal*: but time and circumstances have produced so many alterations with respect to the nature and importance of the subject, that we can perceive no very particular reason for the republication of the present tract: though it is probable that something in it may have struck the editor, which, in a cursory re-perusal, we have missed. The pamphlet (which strongly recommends the measure) was by no means approved in the *Review*, at the time of its first appearance: but one suggestion caught our attention by its novelty, *viz.* the writer's proposal to balance the over-poise of the Roman Catholic interest in Ireland, by inviting over and naturalizing Foreign Protestants, whose numbers would soon turn the scale in favour of the established church.—We do not, however, by any means recommend the scheme.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 22. *Plants of the Coast of Coromandel*, selected from Drawings and Descriptions presented to the Hon. Court of Directors of the East India Company. By W. Roxburgh, M. D. published by their Order, under the Direction of the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. K. B. P. R. S. Fasciculus IV. and Fasciculus I. of Vol. II. Folio, each 1l. 1s. plain, or 3l. 10s. coloured. Nicol.

We have announced to the public the former numbers of this work, so honorable to the author and to the taste and magnificence of the British Nation: see *M. Rev.* vol. xxii. N. S. p. 458. The fourth Fasciculus contains descriptions and delineations of the following plants:

Ventilago maderaspatana.
Carissa Carandas.
Ulmus integrifolia.
Bambos arundinacea.
 ——— *stricta.*
Aponogeton monostachyon.
Memecylon edule.
Limonium monophylla.
 ——— *pentaphylla.*
 ——— *arboresc.*
 ——— *crenulata.*

Getonia floribunda.
Erythroxylon monogynum.
Ochna squarrosa.
Gerardia delphinifolia.
Aeginetia indica.
Cylista scariosa.
Casua axillaris.
Pandanus odoratissimus, three plates.
Gouania tiliaefolia.
Mimosa dulcis.
 ——— *xylocarpa.*

The fruit of the *Pandanus odoratissimus* is of a most rich and beautiful appearance, but is said to be of disagreeable taste, and eaten only in times of famine. The plant itself is employed only for fences and hedges, for which it answers well. The tender white leaves of the flowers yield that most delightful fragrance for which the plant is so remarkable, and which has caused the name given to it.

Dr. Roxburgh says that it is the most rich and powerful perfume that he knows.

A systematical index to vol. i. is given with this Fasciculus.

The first No. of vol. ii. presents to view the following plants:

Schrebera Swietenoides.

Olae scandens.

Cassia scandens.

Cuscuta reflexa.

Monyanthes cristata.

Cinchona excelsa.

Tradescantia axillaris.

————— *tuberosa.*

————— *paniculata.*

Pontederia vaginalis.

————— *basata.*

Bergera Koenigii.

Dalbergia latifolia.

————— *paniculata.*

————— *rubiginosa.*

Pterocarpus marsupium.

Manisuris myurus.

————— *granularis.*

Mimosa natans.

————— *odoratissima.*

————— *procera.*

————— *amara.*

Ficus glomerata.

————— *oppositifolia.*

————— *comosa.*

The *Mimosa odoratissima* and *M. procera* are very elegant and beautiful plants.—The leaves of the *Bergera Koenigii* are said to be a principal ingredient in the country stews called curries, and are used dry when they cannot be obtained fresh. The bark and roots are taken internally as stimulants, and applied externally for eruptions and the bite of poisonous animals. The green leaves are prescribed to be eaten raw as a cure for the dysentery; and when bruised are formed into cataplasms, to be used like the bark and roots.—The *Schrebera Swietenoides* is a large timber tree, the wood of which is grey, very close-grained, heavy, durable, and not subject to crack. Dr. Roxburgh thinks that it would answer well for scales to mathematical instruments. It is not so handsome as box, but is not subject to warp.

Art. 23. *The British Flora*, or a Linnæan Arrangement of British Plants. By John Hull, M. D. Secretary of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester, and Member of several others. 12mo. pp. 449. 8s. 6d. Beard. Bickerstaff. 1799.

No country in Europe has produced so many *Floras*, of almost every kind, as Great Britain; and still there is much to commend in the present publication, though appearing after so many others. While the prevailing taste for Botany occasions a continual demand for books of this nature, the industry of our Botanists daily discovers new plants; and improves, by new observations, the characters of those which were before known to grow in our island. Old books are thus rendered less useful, and new publications on the same subject become necessary; among which this little *Flora* of Dr. Hull will appear with distinction, on account of the knowledge and candour which he displays in it.

The volume is divided into two parts; the first comprehending the first twenty three classes of the Linnæan system, and the second being entirely dedicated to Cryptogamic plants. The author strictly adheres to the Linnæan classification, as originally established, without adopting any of the reforms made by Professor Thunberg; which, though

though sanctioned by very respectable Botanists, in fact disfigure that elegant system, while they seem to simplify it. Dr. Hull promises to give his reasons for this attachment to the original Linnean division in another work, which he announces as in the press, entitled *Introduction to Botany, and the natural Characters of English Plants**. We can easily guess his reasons, and we concur with him in his opinion.

As must be the case with pocket Floras, this work contains little more than a catalogue, with the characters, the habitations, and a few synonyms: but the author shews taste and knowledge in the choice of his materials. Besides the species, he has also marked every variety which is not merely distinguished by size or colour. He has judiciously made use of the improvements of foreign authors in the discrimination of plants; particularly in the class of Cryptogamia: in which, besides the two new genera, *Cyathea* and *Hymenophyllum*, borrowed from Dr. Smith, he has adopted many others from Micheli, Haller, Bülhard, and Persoon. We are surprized that he has not also adopted some of the genera of mosses proposed by Hedwig, with whose works he appears to be acquainted.

Art. 24. *The British Garden*, a descriptive Catalogue of hardy Plants indigenous or cultivated in the Climate of Great Britain, with their generic and specific Characters, Latin and English Names, Native Country, and Time of Flowering. With introductory Remarks. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards; Printed at Bath; and sold in London by Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

The total want of synonyms in this work prevents its being classed among those botanical publications which are destined to advance the science: but it is commendable as being calculated to foster and cultivate a love of this elegant pursuit. The manner in which it is executed is not only praiseworthy but attractive. The characters are well drawn; and the epochs of cultivation, the names of the persons who introduced plants in England, their habitations, and their times of flowering, are marked in imitation of the *Hortus Kewensis* of Ayton. Altogether, we consider it as an useful, convenient, and well compiled repertory; forming an instructive companion to young botanists, and to the numerous dilettanti, while on a visit to Botanic gardens.

MILITARY and NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 25. *Minutes and Proceedings of the General Court Martial*, held at the Royal Hospital, Chelsea, 22—27 June 1799, on the Conduct of Major Andrew Armstrong, of the 11th Regiment of Foot, in the late Expedition to Ostend: accompanied with Extracts from the Parliamentary Debates, General Orders and Official Documents, relative to the said Expedition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Egerton. 1799.

The charges against Major Armstrong were, "1st, quitting his regiment or division on the 19th and 20th days of May 1798, (when on service near Ostend,) without leave of his superior officer, in contempt of the 8th article of the 14th section of the Articles of War.

* Since the above article was written, this work has appeared, under the title of *Elements of Botany*, 2 vols. 8vo.

" 2dly, Misbehaving himself before the enemy by shamefully abandoning his post on the 20th May aforesaid, in contempt of the 20th article of the 14th section of the Articles of War."

The sentence of the court was, that the Major was *not guilty* of either of the charges; of which he was therefore *acquitted*.—The collateral official papers would assist in forming a narrative of the expedition to which they relate.

Art. 26. *The Regimental Companion*; containing the relative Duties of every Officer in the British Army, and rendering the Principles of System and Responsibility familiar. By Charles James, of the 60th Regiment of Foot, late Captain in the North York Militia. 12mo. pp. 335. 5s. Egerton. 1799.

To give a regular review of this very comprehensive publication would far exceed our limits. Suffice it therefore to say, that it contains much interesting and useful information, alloyed by many errors and inaccuracies. These, however, we shall hope to see corrected, if the author pursues his plan, and forms the present work into "*An Annual Repository of Army Regulations*;" in which we wish him success.

Art. 27. *An Account of the Navies of Foreign Powers*, particularly those of France, Spain, and Batavia, now at War with Great Britain; including a List of Frigates, Corvettes, and Sloops: also the Navies of Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Naples; with a comparative State of the Line of Battle Ships in the last War; and the present State of the British Navy. By James Browell, of the Royal Navy. 4to. 1s. Steel, &c. 1799.

The larger half of this pamphlet is occupied by the French navy, and the author states that his principal design is to lay open an artifice practised by the French, 'in deceiving their countrymen, as well as allies, by the wretched subterfuge of frequently changing the names of their ships, with the design to persuade the world their force is what they would fain it should be in fact, by multiplying intricacies to deceive themselves.'—The publication will certainly be useful to those whose researches extend to naval records: although, as Mr. Browell confesses, errors and inaccuracies must undoubtedly occur in an attempt of this nature, in which the compiler has so many difficulties to encounter.

POLITICAL, &c.

Art. 28. *Reflections on the Political State of Society, at the Commencement of the Year 1800*. By John Bowles, Esq. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Longman, &c.

The political abilities of Mr. Bowles are well known to the public, from a variety of notable defences of the late and present measures of our administration; and he is still, very consistently, their zealous (we had almost said *violent*) advocate. He concludes his comprehensive and well timed * reflections on the present critical state of Europe, in the following animated strain:

* This publication was issued from the press in January last, a few days before the meeting of parliament.

Whether

Whether it be allotted to society to escape the destruction with which it is menaced, can be known only to the Supreme Disposer of all events, Who, at one glance, beholds the past, the present, and the future. But, as far as our limited capacities can enable us to form a judgment upon this most important of all temporal concerns, an opportunity for such an escape seems to present itself. The result of all human efforts must, doubtless, be uncertain; but if, in a great and awful crisis, black with horror, replete with calamity, and pregnant with ruin, it be possible, without presumption, to pronounce confidently on the efficacy of proposed expedients, we may venture to assert, that if mankind desire to avert the perils to which they are exposed, they must listen to the warning voice—issuing from the North;—which calls upon all Nations to “RESTORE THE RIGHTS OF LAWFUL GOVERNMENT, WHEREVER THOSE RIGHTS HAVE BEEN DEPRIVED—TO UNITE THEIR FORCES FOR THE SPEEDY DESTRUCTION OF THE COMMON ENEMY, AND TO BUILD ON HIS RUINS PERMANENT TRANQUILLITY FOR THEMSELVES AND POSTERITY—AND TO RESOLVE NOT TO SHEATH THE SWORD, UNTIL THEY HAVE SEEN THE DOWNFALL OF THE MONSTER, WHO THREATENS TO CRUSH ALL LEGAL AUTHORITIES.”

“No pause, no rest, ’till, welt’ring on the ground,
The poisonous Hydra lies, and pierc’d with many a wound.”

RELIGIOUS, &c.

Art. 29. *Letters to a Member of Parliament, on the Writings of Baron Swedenborg, containing a full and complete Refutation of all the Abbé-Barruel’s Calumnies against the Honourable Author.* By J. Clowes, M. A. Rector of St. John’s Church, Manchester, and Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

A sensible, candid, and energetic vindication of the character and theological doctrines of the celebrated Baron Swedenborg; in opposition to the ‘gross misrepresentations’ of the Abbé Barruel, in the 1st vol. of his “Memoirs of Jacobinism.”—Mr. C.’s book is well written; and it comprehends, besides a ‘complete refutation of the Abbé’s Calumnies,’ a full and (to us) a very satisfactory exposition of the whole Swedenborgian system: to which Mr. Clowes appears to be conscientiously attached. — On the whole, his work deserves, or we are much deceived, a place among the most respectable productions of theological controversy, in the libraries of Protestant Divines.

Art. 30. *Diatessaron, sive integra Historia Domini Nostri Jesu Christi, Græc. Ex IV. Evangeliiis inter se collatis, ipsisque Evangelistarum verbis apte et ordinate dispositis confecta. Subjungitur Evangeliorum Harmonia brevis.* Edidit J. White, S. T. P. Ling. Arab. Prof. Versionis Syriacæ Philoxeniana Nov. Test. Interpret. Oxonii, e Typographæo Clarendoniano. 1799.

The opportunities which have been so frequently afforded us, of bestowing our commendations on the learning and abilities of Dr. White, preclude the necessity of adding any general praises to the account

account of the little volume with which he has favored the public under the title of *Diatessaron*.

Dr. White informs us, in a short preface, that there are two similar *Harmonies* of the Gospels recorded by Eusebius: the first by Tatian, and the second by Ammonius, who both flourished in the third century. These have long since been lost.—The curious reader will find an account of them, and of the two pretended Latin translations, published by Zacharias Chrysopolitanus, and Ottomarus Luscinius, in the *Codex Apocr. Nov. Testam.* of Fabricius. The same eminent philologist has given also a list of the various antient and modern *Harmonies* which have been mentioned by the early ecclesiastical writers, or which are still preserved, in the third volume of his *Bibliotheca Græca*, p. 212.—Vol. iv. p. 880. ed. Harl. Among these, the *Diatessaron* of Dr. White will be registered by future Bibliographers with a large portion of praise. The volume is very elegantly printed; and the events of our Saviour's life are recorded in chronological order, and in the very words in which they are described by the four Evangelists.

We cannot but earnestly recommend this *Diatessaron* to the tutors in our Universities. Their pupils may study the gospels with singular advantages in this new form; they should be habituated to refer, as far as it may be practicable, in each separate narrative of the *Diatessaron*, to the other three Evangelical writers; which will in a short time render them familiarly acquainted with the slight variations in the relation of facts, and with the difference of style, observable in these sacred historians.

Dr. White has judiciously noted, on his margins, the time and the place in which each event happened. A map of Palestine is prefixed; and a most useful, though concise, *Evangeliorum Harmonia* is added at the end of the volume.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 31. *The Nurse*, a Poem. Translated from the Italian of Luigi Tansillo. By William Roscoe. The 2d Edition. Small 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

The first edition of this beautiful poem was announced in our 28th volume N. S. and with great sincerity we then bestowed much praise on Mr. Roscoe's admirable version. It now appears in a more commodious size, with some corrections, and with an additional poem; which we shall transcribe for the gratification of our readers, as the thought is ingenious and the versification is easy:

INSCRIPTION.

‘ Stranger, that [who] with careless feet,
Wanderest near this green retreat,
Where, thro’ gently bending slopes,
Soft the distant prospect opes;

‘ Where the fern, in fringed pride,
Decks the lonely valley's side;
Where the linnet chirps his song,
Flitting as thou tread'st along;

‘ Know,

‘ Know, where now thy footsteps pass
O’er the bending tufts of grass,
Bright gleaming thro’ th’ encircling wood,
Once a NAIAD roll’d her flood :

‘ If her Urn, unknown to fame,
Pour’d no far extended stream,
Yet along its grassy side,
Clear and constant flow’d the tide.

‘ Grateful for the tribute paid,
Lordly MERSEY lov’d the Maid—
Yonder rocks still mark the place
Where she met his stern embrace.

‘ Stranger, curious, wou’dst thou learn
Why she mourns her wasted Urn?
Soon a short and simple verse
Shall her hapless fate rehearse.

‘ Ere yon neighbouring spires arose,
That the upland prospect close,
Or ere along the startled shore
Echo’d loud the caannon’s roar,

‘ Once the Maid in summer’s heat
Careless left her cool retreat,
And by sultry suns oppress’d,
Laid her weary limbs to rest ;

‘ Forgetful of her daily toil
To trace each tract of humid soil,
From dews and bounteous show’rs to bring
The limpid treasures of her spring ;

‘ Enfeebled by the scorching ray,
She slept the sultry hours away ;
And when she op’d her languid eye,
Found her silver Urn was dry.

‘ Heedless Stranger, who so long
Hast listen’d to an idle song,
Whilst trifles thus thy notice share,
Hast thou no URN that asks thy care ?”

We cannot refrain from expressing a wish, that Mr. Roscoe would favor us with a version of Tansillo’s *Il Podere*, or Country-house ; in which, according to Mr. R. ‘ he gives directions for making a proper choice of a country residence, enlivening the barrenness of his subject with the happiest illustrations and the most sportive wit.’

Art. 32. *Gebir* ; a Poem, in Seven Books. 8vo. pp. 74. 2s. 6d.
Rivingtons. 1798.

An unpractised author has attempted, in this poem, the difficult task of relating a romantic story in blank-verse. His performance betrays all the incorrectness and abruptness of inexperience, but it manifests occasionally some talent for description. He has fallen into the common error of those who aspire to the composition of blank-verse, by borrowing too many phrases and epithets from our incomparable

incomparable Milton. We give the following extract, as affording a fair specimen :

‘ Once a fair city, courted then by kings,
Mistress of nations, throng’d by palaces,
Raising her head o’er destiny, her face
Glowing with pleasure and with palms refreshed;
Now, pointed at by Wisdom or by Wealth,
Bereft of beauty, bare of ornaments,
Stood, in the wilderness of woe, Masar.
Ere far advancing, all appear’d a plain,
Treachorous and fearful mountains, far advanced,
Her glory so gone down, at human step
The fierce hyæna, frighted from the walls,
Bristled his rising back, his teeth unsheathed,
Drew the long growl and with slow foot retired.
Still were remaining some of ancient race,
And ancient arts were now their sole delight.
With Time’s first sickle they had marked the hour
When at their incantation would the Moon
Start back, and shuddering shed blue blasted light.
The rifted rays they gather’d, and immersed
In potent portion of that wondrous wave
Which, hearing rescued Israel, stood erect,
And led her armies through his crystal gates.

‘ Hither—none shared her way, her counsel none—
Hied the Masarian Dalica : ’twas night,
And the still breeze fell languid on the waste.
She, tir’d with journey long, and ardent thoughts,
Stopt : and before the city she descried
A female form emerge above the sands :
Intent she fix’d her eyes, and on herself
Relying, with fresh vigor bent her way ;
Nor disappear’d the woman ; but exclaim’d—
One hand retaining tight her folded vest—
“ Stranger ! who loathest life, there lies Masar.
Begone, nor tarry longer, or, ere morn,
The cormorant, in his solitary haunt
Of insulated rock or sounding cove,
Stands on thy bleached bones, and screams for prey.
My lips can scatter them a hundred leagues,
So shrivel’d in one breath, as all the sands
We tread on could not in as many years.
Wretched, who die nor raise their sepulchre !
Therefore begone.”—

‘ Now to Aurora, borne by dappled steeds,
The sacred gate of orient pearl and gold,
Smitten with Lucifer’s light silver wand,
Expanded slow in strains of harmony,
The waves beneath, in purpling rows, like doves
Glancing with wanton coyness tow’rd their queen,
Heav’d softly : thus the damsel’s bosom heaves

When, from her sleeping lover's downy cheek,
 To which so warily her own she brings
 Each moment nearer, she perceives the warmth
 Blithe warmth, of kisses fann'd by playful Dreams.
 Ocean, and earth, and heaven, was jubilee,
 For 'twas the morning, pointed out by Fate,
 When an immortal maid and mortal man
 Should share each other's nature, knit in bliss.*

We must observe that the story is told very obscurely, and should have been assisted by an *Argument* in prose. Young writers are often astonished to find that passages, which seem very clear to their own heated imaginations, appear very dark to their readers.—The author of the poem before us may produce something worthy of more approbation, if he will labour hard, and delay for a few years the publication of his next performance.

Art. 33. *A Melancholy, but True Story.* 4to. 1s. Liverpool, printed; and sold by Hurst, London. 1800.

We hope that this heart-rending tale is *not* true; and we hope, also, that the young writer will be content with our allowing *her** performance sufficient merit by our honest praise of her *POETRY*; as well as in our warm approbation of her benevolent design, viz. to befriend the cause of suffering virtue among the poor:—a subject, at this time, very seasonably brought forward.

Art. 34. *Extracts from the Works of the most celebrated Italian Poets.* By admired English Authors. 8vo. pp. 300. 8s. Boards, Rivingtons, &c.

The title-page of this work sufficiently explains its nature. The extracts are from Metastasio, Tasso, Ariosto, Guarini, Lorenzo de' Medici, Dante, &c. and the translations are from Hoole, Hayley, Roscoe, &c.

Art. 35. *The Last Dying Words of the Eighteenth Century*, a Pindaric Ode; giving a humorous and chronological Detail of all the remarkable Events, Fashions, Characters, &c. &c. By Andrew Merry, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lee. 1800.

Some instances of jocularly in death are on record: but we believe that this is the first specimen of last dying words being delivered in a humorous hudiabastic-pindaric ode. Some, however, will say that the Eighteenth Century may well be in such spirits, because it is not dying, and will live for some time yet, in spite of all its enemies. Perhaps Mr. Andrew Merry, or Merry Andrew, or whatsoever he may chuse to be called, may have a design on us in this comical production, and may mean to draw us (who are more apt to be caught and fascinated by pleasantry than by a starched gravity) into the important centuarian controversy: but we must let him know, that we do not undertake to teach our readers how space and time are reckoned. Why, indeed, should we interfere, since a Muse is here invoked to explain the matter?—We will let this Muse speak

* We are informed that the fair writer is only sixteen years old: if so, she is, indeed, blessed with a more than common portion of genius.

for herself; though we should conclude, from her manner, that she had not been long in the *demonstration line*.

' First, the Muse shows (since void of sense
There's some have wonder'd)

That CENTURY EIGHTEEN *did* commence
With *Seventeen hundred*.

When that the LORD's *first* year began
The Century to *One hundred* ran.

Then from this Probat, must be reckon'd
In the *first* hundred, Century SECOND.

So, as has been by every one read,

The EIGHTEENTH was in SEV'NTEEN HUNDRED.'

In these lines we see neither wit, beauty, harmony, nor perspicuity.

The Eighteenth Century may be supposed, in her dying recollections, (as old people have never the best memories,) to have omitted many circumstances of her long and eventful life: but we are astonished that she should make such a mistake as to call Queen Anne King William's daughter.

The changes of fashion are particularly noticed; and antient and modern modes of dress are contrasted with some humour in the poem, and exhibited in a caricature print facing the title.

A. D. 1700.

' What modesty now mark'd our fair,
They did not leave their bosoms bare,

Creating passion!

But hiding almost all the skin,

They wore large caps, tied under chin;

Ah, sweet old fashion!

And the ruff handkerchiefs did so pin

That no part of the breast lay open. —

' The titled lady, neat and prim,
Exhibited a person slim,

With waist so nice and taper;

How neatly fix'd was every pin;

So tightly lac'd, she look'd as thin

As was her own thread-paper;

And then by a large *hoop's* assistance

She kept the fopling at a distance.

' The *Macaroni*, like a Lord,

Walk'd with *full-bottom'd* wig and sword,

And *cravat* as was made then;

A long square coat with a large cuff,

For taylors put in cloth enough,

A sign that they were paid then!

With fierce *cock'd* hat they look'd like men,

And wore two costly rings;

At first large buckles, *small* ones then,

But never thought of *strings*.'

This merry gentleman has hit on a good idea, and in some parts has executed it with effect: but, should he be encouraged to give us *more last words*, we shall expect to see the Old Lady a little more correct, as well as more entertaining.

REV. FEB. 1800.

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Art.

Art. 36. *Bonaparte's Reverie*: A Poem. 8vo. pp. 65. 2s. Boards.
Richardson: 1799.

The introduction to this poem describes the French hero (now the Grand Consul) as a man of the greatest courage, abilities, and resources, but instigated by a frenzied ambition; and it reminds us that his character is drawn after the conqueror of Italy had degraded himself into the *free-booter of Egypt*.

In the poem, Bonaparte thus speaks:

' Alaric fam'd for many a blood-mark'd field,
Attila, 'Timon, to my name must yield;
Young Ammon, too, though all in hist'ry shine,
Each had his hour, the golden *now* is mine.
Their different realms and states have had their day;
But all "*to the Great Nation*" must give way.'

This is quite in character for a vain ambitious hero, who considers himself to be Fortune's very first favourite: but the poetry might have been better, and the character equally well preserved. Here, as in other parts of the piece, the author sins against all the rules of quantity. The second *a* in *Alaric* is short, and so is the *i* in *Attila*, but he has made them both long*. The last line, moreover, is too tame and prosaic for the mouth of *frenzied ambition*.

Bonaparte is well described as anticipating, in his imagination, the entire conquest of all Africa and Asia: but it is completely out of character to make him talk of

' A Kemble's acting and a Jordan's smile.'

Britons are, properly enough, complimented with his threats of vengeance:

' And their great empire soaring o'er mankind.'
but we trust that, either as General or Consul, he will not be able materially to hurt this our happy sea-girt isle.

After having made Bonaparte boast what great things he will accomplish by the expedition to Egypt, the poet well depicts his defeat before Acre, and at last his desertion of the army:

' In a small bark he meanly steals away;
Silent she spreads her canvas to the gales,
And Afric's curses fill the parting sails.'

He then adds:

' Unhappy France! your mis'ries now begin,
And in your punishment you'll see your sin.'

Poets and prophets are said to be of one and the same profession.

Art. 37. *The Ugly Club*: a Dramatic Caricature in One Act.
By Edmund Spenser, the Younger. 8vo. 1s. Cawthorne.

It would be unjust to say that there is no wit in this slight piece, since the author has taken all his good things from high authorities; Butler, Addison, and Steele, have been laid largely under contribu-

* We have also the line,

' Improving on Mahomet's crafty plan,'
where the *o* is made *long* in Mahomet, which is short. In another place (still taking liberties with proper names) he converts *Thermopile* into *Thermopile*, (see p. 33.)

tion

tion for the support of his dialogue. The passages which he has appropriated are unluckily so familiar to the readers of Hudibras and the Spectator, that they immediately strike the recollection as borrowed, and leave the author's own composition a mere *caput mortuum*.

Art. 38. *Pizarro*; a Tragedy in Five Acts: Differing widely from all other *Pizarro*'s* in respect of Characters, Sentiments, Language, Incidents, and Catastrophe. By a North-Briton. 8vo. pp. 63. 2s. 6d. Hurst.

This is one of the *eruptions* produced by the late strange phrenzy for German tragedy;

"They rave, recite, and madden round the land"—

Here is a bonny Scot, who has actually undertaken to re-write the hackneyed subject of *Pizarro*; and a *braw* tragedy he has made of it. Cora is here the daughter of Ataliba; Alonzo is mortally wounded in the battle, and persuades his lady to give her hand to Rolla; and Elvira is provided with a husband in the person of Valverde.—All this might be tolerated: but the author's contempt of grammar is really not to be endured. When his Elvira, for example, tears off her '*male attire*,' p. 15, [we presume, her small clothes,] on the stage,—which is quite a new incident in tragedy,—she exclaims, 'Never more *does these* conceal my sex.' Again, in the *marginal directions* for the second scene, act II. on one side '*sits* Cora and Fernando.' This error is repeated in p. 61. In the third act, we have this notable vulgarity: 'He has not been,' for, He has not been here: this indeed is a provincial blunder, not a Scotticism.

In the battle, Rolla is made to kill *Pizarro*; and never, certainly, was business commenced with more dispatch;

'Rolla. Ha!

'*Pizarro*. Well met.' [*They fight.*]

It would have been difficult to have said less, if *Pizarro* had offered his antagonist a pinch of snuff.

Though we were not infected by the influence of the *Pizarro*, when it raged to the utmost, yet we cannot flatter this gentleman with such hope as he expresses, that his performance will outlive the name of Sheridan.

Art. 39. *The Happy Family*, a Drama, in Five Acts. Translated from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue. By Benjamin Thompson. 8vo. 2s. Verner, &c. 1799.

This is one of the better kind of Kotzebue's plays; the characters, though feebly conceived, bear more resemblance to the people of this world, than his *dramatis persone* commonly exhibit. The translator's language is also rather more tolerable than that of some other *doers* of Kotzebue; this at least may be said of his prose, but his verses are very indifferent. Witness the following duet, which is introduced with commendations by one of the heroines:

'Rosa.

'Why, Fate, dost thou thine ear thus shut,
And why my supplications mock?—

* The author's own orthography, *differing widely* from all English grammar.

‘ *Rebberg.*

‘ All I require is but a hut,
And friend, and little humble flock.

‘ *Rosa.*

‘ Blest with such gifts I still should know
Peace and contentment felt by few,—

‘ *Rebberg.*

‘ Yet how much more my breast would glow,
If I might share those joys with you.’

Critics sometimes nod, as well as poets, even in the judgment-seat; and it is no wonder, indeed, that the reader should sleep over passages which have lulled the author himself. We are not ashamed therefore to own that, after having read the delectable verses just recited, we fell into a reverie, during which the following words were buzzed in our ears:

“ *Reviewer.*

“ How, Ben, can’st thou be such a put,
And us with bald translations mock?

“ *Translator.*

“ What I desire, is nothing but
To rear my little German flock.

“ *Reviewer.*

“ Curst with such verse, we ne’er should know
A moment’s peace in our Review——

“ *Translator.*

“ Yet brighter far my Muse would glow,
Could I but earn some praise from you.”

Being once more awake, we shall give a specimen of this gentleman’s prose:

‘ *Re-enter Paulina and Rosa.*

‘ *One brings a bottle—the other a silver goblet.*

‘ *Pau.* Number 4.

‘ *Ros.* With a black seal.

‘ *Pau.* There is Hocheim upon it.

‘ *Ros.* And 1776.

‘ *Wel.* [*drinks and says to Rosa*] Fill it. [*She obeys—he turns to the Count.*] Sir, I am sorry that, added to your own misfortunes, you have been obliged to witness the distress of others.—[*Raises the goblet.*] According to the ancient custom of our country I sincerely bid you welcome.

[*Paulina takes the goblet and delivers it to the Count with a curtsey.*

‘ *Lob.* [*empties it.*] To the health of my worthy host!—Now, Sir, if you really remain true to the customs of our forefathers, I am secure in your house, for we have drank from the same goblet.

‘ *Wel.* Here lurks no traitor.

‘ *Dal.* Spies gain nothing here.

‘ *Fre.* But a drubbing.

‘ *Reb.* And contempt.

‘ *Mrs. W.* If you be weary, Sir, I’ll conduct you to a retired chamber.

‘ *Pau.* You shall sleep on linen, which we wove ourselves.

‘ *Ros.*

‘*Ros.* And feathers of our own geese.

‘*Lob.* Heaven be praised that I again find myself among men! All I see and hear inspires confidence. I should like, good old man, to have a little conversation with you in private.

‘*Wel.* With all my heart! My friends and children, you will find employment enough, if you will go into the court, and assist in the preparations for our little country feast.

‘*Dal.* I sent you a few poles for the occasion, from the forest.

‘*Pau.* And I made the garlands for them.’

A very different picture of rural elegance and simplicity might be drawn by some able artist of this country:—but what inducement can men of genius feel to risk their reputation on our stage, while bombast, extravagance, and the vilest caricatures of human nature, obtain the public applause!

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 40. *Philosophical Questions*, selected for the Use of the upper Classes in Berkhamsted School. By R. Hartley. Small 8vo. pp. 120. 3s. bound. Murray and Co.

These questions are designed for tutors, to enable them to appreciate the proficiency of their scholars. Many of the interrogatories are certainly well adapted for this purpose, but some should have been omitted. If learned and wise men cannot give a clear account of essences, accidents, causes, and effects, why puzzle the heads of young students with such intricacies?

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 41. *A Letter to the Committee for raising the Naval Pillar, or Monument*, under the Patronage of his Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence. By John Flaxman, Sculptor. 4to. 2s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies.

No sooner were we gratified by the suggestion that, it was in contemplation to erect a stupendous monument of the glory acquired by our great naval commanders, which should remain to distant ages as a testimony of the nation's gratitude, than we had to lament that the execution of this idea should depend on the precarious and scanty means of private subscription. As a national act, the expence of its execution should have been voted out of the public purse; and, considering the effect of such monuments in exciting emulation and a thirst for glory, it could not have been deemed the worst application of public money. Whether this scheme will be taken up in our Houses of Parliament, we cannot say: but unless it be, there seems little prospect of its being executed. Our artists, however, without waiting to see whether a fund can be raised adequate to the magnificence of such an undertaking, are prompt in obeying the invitation of the Committee to send in their designs; and we have no doubt that the genius of our modern Professors of the Arts, if a sufficient fund can be collected, will form a monument that will do credit, in after ages, to the taste and execution of the present. We much question, however, whether Mr. Flaxman's idea would be adopted, though there be great magnificence in his design. He proposes not an obelisk,

lisk, nor a column, nor any architectural erection: but, consistently with his profession as a sculptor, he recommends an immense Colossal statue, 230 feet high, to be placed on Greenwich Hill, near the Observatory, to be seen from the River, and from the Kent road. Plates are given, to illustrate his idea.

Art. 42. *Letter to the Nobility and Gentry composing the Committee for raising the Naval Pillar, or Monument, under the Patronage of his Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence; in Answer to the Letter of John Flaxman, Sculptor, to the Committee on that Subject.* By Alexander Dufour, Architect. 4to. 18. 6d. Taylor.

With apparent acrimony, though he disclaims being actuated by any hostile motive, Mr. Dufour criticizes Mr. Flaxman's letter. He in the first place reproves him for publishing his design, when the Committee desired that the Models and Drawings should be sent in without the name of the author; and he in the next place offers his strictures on Mr. Flaxman's remarks on the Obelisk, Column, Meta, Triumphal Arch, Pharos, and Temple; reprobrates the idea of a Colossal Statue; and contends, consistently with his profession as an architect, (recollect reader, the old fable,) that 'a monument of architecture, in which the talents of different artists must necessarily combine, is more durable and more proper than a statue, to transmit to posterity the talents, the bravery, and the riches that distinguish the British nation.' He does not, however, disapprove of the spot chosen by Mr. Flaxman; which seems, indeed, the proper one; as then the monument, being in the place whence the longitude is reckoned, would be (as Mr. Flaxman remarks) like the first mile-stone in the city of Rome; the point from which the world would be measured.

Art. 43. *Authentic Memoirs of Tippoo Sultan, including his cruel Treatment of English Prisoners; accounts of his Campaigns with the Mahrattas, Rajahs, Warren Hastings, Esq., Lord Cornwallis, and Lord Mornington; Plunders, Captures, Intrigues, and Secret Correspondence with France; as laid before the House of Commons; also Descriptions of Eastern Countries hitherto unknown, Palaces, Gardens, Zanana, &c. &c. with a preliminary Sketch of the Life and Character of Hyder Ali Khan. By an Officer in the East India Service.* 12mo. pp. 224. 3s. West and Hughes. 1799.

Tippu Sultan was born in 1748, and towards the close of 1782 he succeeded to the usurped dominion of Mysore, by the death of his father Hyder Ali Khan. To the states of the deposed Dalaway, Hyder had annexed by conquest a tract of country nearly three times as extensive, by the reduction of the petty principalities in his vicinity. Two years previously to his death, he had commenced hostilities with the English, by an irruption into the Carnatic; and that war, in which Tippu displayed uncommon prowess on various occasions, still continued when the latter mounted the throne. Hitherto, success had been alternate and indecisive: but the unhappy expedition of General Mathews, stained by cruelty, disgraced by rapine, and ultimately punished by the severest calamities, left the English in possession only of Mangalor, and a few isolated fortresses, when peace

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was concluded in 1784. From this period, we find a chasm in the memoirs now before us, till the year 1789; a chasm the more remarkable, as the interval was filled with uninterrupted hostilities between the Sultan and the Mahrattas, with various successes, and much effusion of blood.

In 1789, the Rajah of Travancor purchased the forts of Cranganor and Joiceotta from the Dutch: Tippu claimed them as antient dependencies of Mysore, and on the 29th of December commenced hostilities by an attack on the Rajah's lines; thus the English were once more forced to take arms in defence of their ally. It is not a little singular that the present author considers this as merely the ostensible cause of warfare; what was the real motive he has not informed us. Admitting that the Rajah's claim to these forts was obnoxious to controversy, and that the Sultan offered to negotiate, yet, as he refused to suspend his attack in order to wait the issue of the negotiations, we conceive that the only alternative left to Lord Cornwallis, (the English Governor-General) was to desert his ally, or take up arms in his defence. The military operations which ensued have long been given to the public in the correspondence of the commanders; and we meet with no additional facts in the publication before us, that are of considerable importance. In February 1792, a treaty was dictated to the Sultan, at the gates of his capital;—by which he agreed to pay 3½ millions sterling, and to cede a moiety of his dominions to the allied powers.

Here, a second chasm intervenes; and we hear nothing of the Sultan's operations till the re-commencement of hostilities in 1798. In the beginning of that year, Tippu dispatched ambassadors to the King of France, to conclude an alliance offensive and defensive with the French, and to solicit a supply of troops. They returned to Mangalore in April, with a body of 2000 French troops, commanded by M. Dubuc. As no pretext of grievance was alleged by the Sultan against the English, and no explanation could be obtained that was calculated to extenuate the impression of his perfidy, preparations were immediately commenced for a vigorous attack. General Harris, after a march in which he encountered little opposition, arrived before Seringapatam on the 4th of April 1799; and exactly a month afterwards, the capital of Mysore was taken by storm, and the body of the Sultan found buried under a multitude of slain.

‘It being now near sun-set, (says the writer,) every one was desirous to secure, if possible, the Mysorean chief. After much inquiry, they found a person, who seemed to be a man of consequence, but his name was unknown. He said that Tippu Sultan had been killed in endeavouring to make his escape. This man was immediately seized, and threatened with immediate death, if he did not show the place. Accordingly, he led the way to a kind of gateway, leading to a bridge across the ditch; there, in a place about four feet wide, and twelve long, were upwards of 70 dead bodies, and Tippoo's palanquin appeared in the midst of them. Immediate search was then made for his body, but so numerous were the slain, that it was a full hour before he was discovered. The unfortunate Tippoo had received a shot in his arm at the time of the storm; for he was himself on the
P 4 ramparts.

ramparts: after this, in endeavouring to make his escape, he was met by a party of Europeans, who wounded him on the side with a bayonet; he had also received a shot in the temple, which put an end to his existence. The body was recognized by his relatives and some Palanquin boys, and was still warm when discovered. He had his sabre clenched fast in his hand.

'Tippoo Sultan was rather above the middle size, stout, corpulent, and well made. He dressed rather plain, and his head was shaved close. He was in his 51st year when killed, and was interred, agreeable to the supplication of his family, on the left side of his father, in Lal Baug, with all the ceremonies and honours of the place.'

The author trusts that his work 'bears sufficient testimony of its own authenticity, but, as a fuller assurance, the reader is respectfully informed, that it comes from the pen, which was the first to announce to Great Britain our late glorious victory at Seringapatam.' This officer's materials have been, however, very scanty, and relate almost exclusively to the wars of the Sultan with the English; the particulars of which, in considerable detail, have long been in the hands of the public. Of his internal polity and government, or of his long and bloody wars with the Mahrattas, we find nothing mentioned. Proper names are printed with much inaccuracy: the Jats are called 'Gaunts'; Moduji Bonsla is said to be 'Rajah of Bezar,' instead of Berar; the 'Dawlerbaug' signifies the Rajah's garden, though the Arabic word Dawlet, which it ought to be, proves the garden to have been the work of Hyder.—Seringapatam cannot with any propriety be said to be 'on the Malabar coast.' The inhabitants are asserted to be 'particularly tenacious of their religion, and will not mix with those of opposite opinions; these contrary opinions have been attended with much bloodshed.' Yet these inhabitants are composed of Mahomedans and Hindoos, whose tenets are widely different from each other.

Art. 44. *The Genealogy of the Stewarts refuted:* in a Letter to Andrew Stuart, Esq. M. P. 8vp. 4s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons, 1799.

Art. 45. *Supplement to the Genealogical History of the Stewarts, with Corrections and Additions; and containing Answers to an anonymous Attack on that History, published at Edinburgh in February 1799, under the Title of "the Genealogical History of the Stewarts refuted."* By Andrew Stuart, Esq. M. P. 4to. 6s. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

The anonymous refutation of Mr. Stuart's work is more distinguished for ability than urbanity, for sarcastic severity than respectful discussion. The author maintains, on the authority of Hall's and Grafton's History of Henry VI. that Sir William Stewart of Jedworth was not in the battle of Homildon, but actually confined in the Tower of London at the time when it happened: that he was liberated on the accession of Henry V.; and that he accompanied his brother, the Constable of Scotland, to France, where they both fell at the siege of Orleans in 1429. As it is not contested that the Earl of Galloway is the representative of Sir William Stuart of Jedworth,

worth, it follows that, on the demise of the Cardinal York, he will also represent the Stuarts of Darnley and Lennox; and this consequence is not denied, if the premises were established.

On the other hand, Mr. Stuart produces additional proofs of his first position, that the brave knight, who fell in the field of Rouvroy, could not have been Sir William Stewart of Jedworth; whose capture at the battle of Homildon, unjust sentence, and ignominious death in 1402, are circumstantially related in the *Scoti-chronicon*, in Winton's chronicle, and on their authority by Mr. Crawford, the antiquary. The weight of evidence seems to preponderate in favor of Mr. Stuart: but we are still to learn the importance of the discussion.

We insert the quotation from Winton, as a specimen of the Scottish language at the commencement of the fifteenth century.

“ Schir William Stewart of Tivydaill
That day was tain in that battaill,
And ain uthir gude Squyceir,
That be name was callit Thomas Ker.
This Schir Henry de Percy
Thai twa demanyt unlauchefully,
As in jugement sittand he
Gart thir twa accusit be,
That thir twa before then
Had been the King of Ingland's men
And armyt agane him; forthi
Thai war accusit of Tratuary
Sua in cullaur of justice,
(Set it was nane) he rasis assis
Ane assis first maid thame guyt.
Bot this Percy, with mair despyte,
To this assis cikit then
Mair malicious fellowne men,
That durst noch doe, but all as he
Wald, sua behussit it to be.
Than accusit he thir twa men,
Saras far than before then;
And by this accusatiaun,
Of deid thai tholit the passiaune
And of thair quarter he gart be set
Sum untill York, upon the yett.”

Art. 46. *Will Whimsical's Miscellany*, Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 248.
4s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

This author may be a country-wit, for aught that we know, (he dates from Chichester,) but we cannot assign to him a very distinguished place in the ranks of literature. He is a dealer both in prose and verse; yet we cannot legally characterize him otherwise than as a haberdasher of small wares.

We seriously advise our facetious friend in the country to be content, in future, with the applause of the critics at his weekly club.

Art.

Art. 47. *The Sinar: a Rhapsody.* To be completed in *Fifty Fable* Volumes. Number I. Small 8vo. pp. 158. 3s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1799.

This work is not void of merit, but the author's attempts at wit and pleasantry are weak and puerile. The excursive and excentric style of writing is of difficult attainment; and excellence in it is rather the gift of nature, than the fruit of elaborate study. It has indeed a peculiar power of captivating young minds: but to write incoherently is no proof of genius. Pindar, Rabelais, and Michael Angelo, are objects of admiration: but they have been followed by a tedious and spiritless train of unsuccessful imitators. True genius may rise superior to known and established rules: but who will not condemn ignorant caprice for departing from them? It is not every one, however, who is able to compose a book like *the Sinar*; and if the author be young, we should judge that he is destined for better performances. So many half-formed and unanimated things are produced before their time, and forced on the public, that we cannot particularly blame the present author for his haste to appear in print; yet, had he spared the perishable paper, we should not have upbraided him for his ill judged mercy.

The writer appears dissatisfied with the mode of distributing honours at Cambridge: but we cannot give a serious hearing to objections so lightly urged. If the matter is to be debated, let this be done gravely and fully. We will listen to reason; "and the hoary head of inveterate abuse" shall exact from us no reverence: but the institutions of a venerable University, which has produced such men as Bacon, Barrow, and Newton, deserve a nobler fate than to fall in "puny battle" by the light and random shafts of petulant hostility.

Art. 48. *The French Expedition into Syria*, comprising General Buonaparte's Letters, with General Berthier's Narrative, and Sir William Sidney Smith's Letters, from the London Gazette. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Ridgway.

It has been often asserted that there is no such thing as Truth of Fact, or historical Truth; and it must be confessed that much may be adduced in justification of this assertion. How contradictory is the evidence out of which History is composed! and when narratives clash, it is often very difficult to discriminate truth from falsehood, and accurately to mark their respective boundaries. To the interest which the immediate narrator may have in giving an exaggerated or a garbled account, must be added the partiality and prejudices of the historian. An Englishman and a Frenchman, a writer now and a writer even ten years hence, will make a different use of the very same materials, and deduce from them very different conclusions. As to the present details from our gallant countryman Sir Sidney Smith, and from the Generals of the Enemy, respecting the Syrian Expedition, we cannot, when they differ, make a fairer proposition than that of the author of the sensible preface by which they are here introduced; viz. to steer the middle course, and to strike a balance between the contending statements. At the siege of Acre, several of the accounts are completely at variance in many of the details, and do

not

not even agree as to the absolute result. The character and manner of the different writers afford, also, much matter of curious observation. In the letters of Bonaparte, we see ingenuity in displaying advantages and in concealing miscarriages; in Berthier's Narrative, we find more of form and method; and in the Letters of Sir Sidney Smith, we trace 'the effusions of a full and ardent mind, which kindles in its progress, yet always borrows a tincture from circumstances as they pass in review before him.' Thus says the Introduction.

This account of the French Expedition into Syria is amusing, as well as flattering to English skill and bravery: but it is neither to be expected nor desired that we should now peruse it with rigid impartiality.

Art. 49. *Campaign of General Bonaparte in Italy, in 1796-7.* By a General Officer. Translated from the French by T. E. Ritchie. With a Narrative of the Operations of the French Armies on the Rhine, &c. Embellished with a Map of the Seat of War in Italy, and a Portrait of the General. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh; sold in London by Crosby. 1799.

Although the materials of which these memoirs are composed are drawn from sources of French authority, they are certainly the best that we can as yet obtain; and the events seem to be here recorded with as much impartiality as can reasonably be expected from a panegyrist of the *Conqueror of Italy*.

From the importance of transactions so recent, and of which the effects are still passing in review before us, there can be no doubt that the present summary detail will be perused with interest; and that it will, on the whole, be considered as a satisfactory record of those most extraordinary circumstances which it relates.

The map will be useful to many readers.—As to the portrait of the modern CÆSAR, we are not competent to pronounce in regard to resemblance between the drawing and the original.

Art. 50. *A Memorial read to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, Dec. 18, 1799; and a Speech, delivered before the same Society, January 29, 1800, by Edmund Cartwright, M. A.* With an *Appendix*, containing Letters from the late Sir William Jones, Dr. Thurlow, late Bishop of Durham, and other distinguished Characters, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Murray and Highley.

The generality of the readers of this publication will, probably, before they have turned over many of its leaves, wonder that a person of the author's superior talents and eminence in the republic of letters should have thought of accepting the appointment of Secretary to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce: but his reason for at last withdrawing his pretensions, as a candidate for that office, will appear in a light still more singular:—*He was convinced that another candidate, his rival, possessed qualifications superior to his own!*—On this conviction, Mr. C. nobly gave his generous testimony (on delivering in his resignation of his pretensions,) to the

greater merit of his principal opponent*, who was accordingly elected.—Such examples of candour, and something more than even candour, are indeed rarely seen; and we cannot but deem the liberal conduct of Mr. C., in this singular instance, such as entitles him to a very high degree of applause.

Any reader of this pamphlet, who may happen to be unacquainted with the character of its author as a man of learning and genius, will here incidentally meet with some very striking particulars; in the perusal of which, though few of the leading facts were new to us, we found a considerable degree of entertainment, as well as some information respecting matters of no small consequence to the welfare of society. We may particularize the author's discovery that yeast is a most potent remedy for putrid sore-throats, &c. of which we had before heard, but which, we believe, is here for the first time communicated to the public by Mr. C. himself. The whole pamphlet merits the public attention.

Art. 51. *Information for Overseers*, published by order of the Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor. 12mo. 6d. Becket, &c. 1799!

* This publication is earnestly recommended to the principal governors and overseers of the poor; and of all other parishioners; and particularly of persons in anywise concerned in the management of poor-houses, not merely as the means of diminishing the poor's rates, but of improving the character and condition of the poor in general.

† We have frequently noticed the several *Reports* of the proceedings of this truly useful and most respectable Society. We have also, in a late Review, mentioned the re-publication of the first volume of these *Reports*, in a cheap pocket size; and now we have the pleasure of observing that their periodical communications have advanced to the tenth No. in 8vo.

Speaking of the proceedings of this Society, Dr. Nasmith, in his late Charge to the Grand Jury of Ely, very properly observes, p. 35, "Having mentioned the article of *Diet*, I strongly recommend to your attention the methods lately discovered of providing for the poor, good, wholesome, and nourishing soups, at a very cheap rate; these methods should be adopted in all work-houses, and from thence the sick might occasionally be supplied. You will find the manner of making these soups fully described in a book, of easy purchase, intitled "*Reports of the Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor.*" This book contains so much useful information on diet, fuel, and various other articles relating to the management of the Poor, that no parish officer should be without it."

We are truly glad to hear, by accounts from various parts of the kingdom, that the idea of preparing soups, on a large scale, for the use

* Mr. Charles Taylor, from Yorkshire; than whom, as we now understand, a more proper person to fill and execute the office in question could not, perhaps, have been found in this kingdom.

of

of *parish* and *other* poor, is coming into general practice; and we are persuaded, on the best evidence [for we have *tried* and *tasted*] that no human food can be *better* or *cheaper*.

Art. 52. *The Escape*. A Narrative, from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue. By Benjamin Thompson. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Vernor and Hood. 1799.

This little volume comprehends a very circumstantial account of the escape of Joseph Pignata, from the prisons of the Roman Inquisition, at the beginning of this century. The *subject* has been much beaten for some time past, especially in the novels of this country; and we are surprized that no book-maker has thought it worth while to detail the manœuvres of the famous Jack Shepherd, which (assisted by proper engravings) would almost exhaust the science of prison-breaking. We acknowlege in the present production, as usual, the wire-drawing powers of Mr. Kotzebue, but we own that we have found many of his dramas more fatiguing. The whole book consists, like a pantomime, in pursuit and escape. We shall give our readers some idea of the obstacles laid in the way of the fugitive, by extracting the following passages:

“The refreshed fugitive and his companion wandered on unbeaten paths. For some days all went on well, but their provisions diminished, and their wine was at an end. Thirst had already compelled them to drink from muddy streams, and soon after their distress increased, for Francis discovered that he had lost his way among the mountains. Towards evening, however, they encountered a neatherd, who had a wild and villainous countenance. They requested him to direct them to the nearest stream, that they might quench their burning thirst.

“Why,” returned he, “don’t you go to Licenza, and drink a glass of wine?”

“With these words he pointed to a castle, which, at a short distance, towered above the hills. The exhausted wanderers received the proposition with delight, thanked the neatherd, and took the road he had directed. Pignata accidentally looked round, and observed that the fellow left his cattle, and ran away as quick as he was able. This appeared to him suspicious.

“Hold!” said he. “We are betrayed. I will rather thirst than venture into that castle.”

“They concealed themselves on one side, in the thickets, where poor Francis, overpowered by hunger and thirst, soon after swooned. Pignata luckily found a few cloves in his pocket, which again strengthened his companion’s empty stomach.

“On the approach of night they pursued their way. They now and then heard the babbling of a stream, refreshed themselves, and filled their flasks. Suddenly they saw something glitter at the distance of about fifty steps, and discovered it to be caused by several muskets, carelessly reclined against the trees. Pignata remained, for a few moments, rooted to the spot, and dared not even gently draw his breath. But what was to be done? To return was still more dangerous than boldly to venture forward, for he now discovered he was

on the path where they had seen the neatherd. Despair inspired him with courage, and he walked past the suspicious place upon his toes.

He now espied a small house on the right hand, and heard some one call a dog. He floated thither like a spirit, which does not even move the air around it. A few steps further lay four Inquisition officers fast asleep in the middle of the road. The fugitive passed so close to them that he heard their breathe, but they did not awake.

Scarcely had he escaped this danger, when he was again aware of four officers stretched asleep on the grass near a small chapel. At a short distance, on a cross road, lay four more. A fifth, who slept as soundly as the rest, he discovered to be the dangerous neatherd, who had been so ready to shew him the road to Licenza. He left this castle to the right, and chose a solitary foot-path to the left, but even on this he had not proceeded far, when he espied fifteen saddled horses fastened at the door of an inn.

Thus surrounded by danger on every side, he proposed to his guide that they should spring over the hedge, run down into the dale, and climb the rock on the other side. They did so immediately. In the dale, indeed, they found a deep current, but they forded it, and arrived in safety at the summit of the rock, where Pignata fell on his knees, and gratefully raised his hands and eyes towards Heaven.

As every thing from the pen of Kotzebue finds such a welcome reception on our theatres, it might be no bad scheme for some of our dramatic manufacturers to turn this narrative into an after-piece. The *Harlequin-Pignata* would be a delightful appendage to Pizarro. By giving the hero a *Columbine*, the interest would be doubled; and some of the officers of the Inquisition might be mollified by *sentimental addresses*. The scene in which the blood-hounds are employed to track Pignata would have an uncommonly fine effect on our stage, as the size of the theatres will now admit the introduction of a real pack. In the "desart woods and antres vast," it would be no difficult matter to start a ghost or two; and by a few touches on Pignata's *emigration*, and some temporary allusions, the projected piece might partake the gale of popularity with the great idol of Drury itself.

Art. 53. *The Spirit of the Public Journals* for 1797 and 1798.

Being an impartial Selection of the most exquisite Essays and Jeux d'Esprits, principally Prose, that appear in the Newspapers and other Publications. With explanatory Notes, and Anecdotes of many of the Persons alluded to. To be continued annually. Vols. I. and II. 12mo. pp. 442. and 403. 10s. Boards. R. Phillips.

A repetition of our opinion on the general merit of collections of this kind is unnecessary. To them we not only owe the preservation of many ingenious *jeux d'esprit*, but our reference to them is facilitated; we are happy therefore to encourage such undertakings, provided that judgment and taste direct their execution. The editor of this compilation has formed, from our newspapers and other periodical works, an amusing miscellany: but he might have taken, we think, a better title than "*The Spirit of the Journals*," though a translation of

of the title of a French book, *L'Esprit des Journaux*. The old word *Quintessence* would have been preferable to *Spirit*.

We are informed by the editor, that the collections of scraps cut out of newspapers suggested to him the idea of this collection; and that, in making it, recourse has seldom been had to publications of an earlier date than the year 1793*.

In the advertisement to the first volume, we are told that far the greater part of the essays are of an anti-ministerial tendency; not, however, owing to any partiality, but from the superior exuberance of wit and humour of the opposition faction; and that, in the second, the proportion would have been greater, had it not been for a particular publication, which has furnished him with some sprightly papers of considerable merit on the ministerial side of the question.

The editor avows himself the author of a number of the articles in the present collection, though he does not particularly point them out.

The news-papers which have chiefly contributed to this miscellany are, *The Morning Chronicle*, *the Times*, *the Morning Herald*, and *the St. James's Chronicle*.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 54. *Preached at St. Mary's, Nottingham, Sept. 4, 1798, before the Governors of the General Hospital.* By Edward Pearson, B. D. Rector of Rempstone. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1799.

The general principles, which form the first part of this sermon, were published by the author in 1786, when he had occasion to apply them to another very important mode of *distributing* the education and religious instruction of indigent youth†. As that publication has been long out of print, it is conceived that some purposes of good may be answered by again bringing those principles before the public in this new connection.—This discourse, like the former, bears for its title, *The Measure and Manner of distributing*, from 1 Tim. vi. 17, 18. It is a sensible and judicious performance. While it shews that the present state of man must of necessity produce an inequality of condition, it at the same time pleads for the greater opportunity and advantage which such a situation affords for the exercise and practice of virtue.

Art. 55. *On Cruelty to dumb Animals*; preached at the Free-church, now called Christ's Church, in Bath, on the Sunday before Lent, 1799. By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, Minister of Christ's Church, Author of the "Guide to the Church." 12mo. 3d. Verner and Hood.

This discourse is said to be 'printed by particular desire.' The subject is certainly important, and always seasonable; and the writer considers it with a suitable warmth and affection. He places the strength of his argument on Christian ground; and here, indeed, it is well supported: for most assuredly, whether men will regard it or

* In the advertisement to the second volume, the editor informs us, that some persons having lamented that he had carried his researches no farther back than 1793, he has in that volume selected from publications of an antecedent, and, in some few instances, rather a remote period.

† M. R. for Jan. 1788, vol. lxxviii. p. 87.

not, wars and combats, and cruelties of every kind, are wholly repugnant to the instructions and spirit of the gospel. Nature and reason supply some arguments on the subject, but Christianity strengthens, enforces, and increases them.

Speaking of man in a state of nature, Mr. Daubeny says, 'In this condition, cruelty constitutes one principal feature of his character. The natural man knoweth no mercy; because he is unacquainted with that religion which is founded in mercy.'—Yet, we may recollect instances of humanity and compassion among those who had never heard of Christian truth; and, sad to say! we may produce proofs of even savage barbarity from among those who have known and professed our holy religion, and are considered as zealous in its cause.—Look to the inquisitions, to the fires at Smithfield, to numerous other facts in antient and more modern times, both among Papists and Protestants, which too clearly testify oppression and cruelty. Mr. Daubeny renders it sufficiently evident that a man of such temper and practice can be no Christian. We hope that his animated and well-designed labours, now cheaply circulated, will have the good effect of awakening and strengthening sentiments of benevolence in general, and exciting his readers to the exercise of gentleness and mercy to dumb animals, as well as to their fellow creatures!

Art. 56. *A Discourse delivered at Rotherbùle Church, May 29, 1799,* for the Benefit of the Royal Humane Society, instituted for the Recovery of Persons apparently dead. By the Rev. T. Haweis, LL. B. and M. D. 8vo. 1s. Chapman.

The scientific author warmly pleads the cause of this benevolent institution, and recommends it by powerful motives. We are sorry to apprehend, from some expressions which occur, that its expenses are very considerable, and its funds greatly impoverished.

The remark offered in the advertisement is very just, viz. 'The living monuments of the divine benediction, on this singular humane institution, are the noblest recommendation, seen and read of all men.'—From one part of this discourse, (p. 17,) it appears that, on application, an apparatus has been furnished by the Society for the late *Mission* to the islands of the Pacific Ocean.—The appendix contains the customary accounts or descriptions relative to the charity; reduced, we think, into somewhat of a more regular form than we have in other instances observed.—It is remarked, at the close, that ten of its most zealous and respectable governors, whose names are mentioned, have died in the course of a few months.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Our information of the fact in Natural History, concerning which a correspondent who signs Φ requests farther particulars, came from a private source; on the authenticity of which we can rely, but from which we cannot now derive the circumstances that are the object of this writer's inquiry.

Letters signed *Indagator*, and *G. S. C.* are just received.

67 In the last Appendix, p. 505. last line, for 'xith Art.' read '11th Art.'; p. 547. l. 8 & 13. for 'Frevot,' r. *Frevet*.



THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MARCH, 1800.

ART. I. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London,*
for the Year 1799. Part II. 4to. Elmsley.

MATHEMATICAL and PHILOSOPHICAL PAPERS.

Essay on the Resolution of Algebraic Equations: attempting to distinguish particularly the real Principle of every Method, and the true Causes of the Limitations to which it is subject. By Giffin Wilson, Esq.

TO those who are conversant with the higher branches of algebra, the difficulties attending them are well known. The resolution of equations is confined within very narrow limits. Those of the third degree frequently present an irreducible case; and though biquadratics have, by several methods, been reduced to cubics, no formula exhibiting to the eye the actual resolution of a biquadratic has yet appeared. With respect to others of the fifth degree, and all of a higher class, no mode of general resolution has hitherto been suggested; notwithstanding the united and successive efforts of the most ingenious mathematicians, for several centuries. The object of the elaborate essay before us is an investigation of the true principles on which the resolution of equations of any degree depends; in order to determine with what probability, and by what means, if possible, we may expect that other methods of solution may be devised, or those which have been already adopted may be rendered more perfect.

‘ With this idea, (says the author) I shall take a concise view of the nature and resolution of equations in general; pointing out the common difficulty, and by what circumstances that difficulty is, in certain cases, lessened or removed; confining myself always to the principle of each step, and a strict analysis of the result, avoiding all detail of mere operation; and, without pretending to much novelty upon a subject already so beaten, I persuade myself, such an investigation will lead to some conclusions which have not been remarked, and which are both curious and important.’

The essay is divided into two chapters, and extends through 39 pages. The reasoning is of so abstruse a nature, and is
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illustrated by such a variety of analytical processes, that no abstract or abridgment of it, which would not far exceed our limits; could be intelligible, much less interesting to our readers in general. Those who are accustomed to direct their attention to subjects of this kind will recur to it, when they have opportunity, and they will peruse it with satisfaction and advantage. The author has suggested hints which may be usefully pursued by persons of ability and leisure; and he closes with observing that the proper method of proceeding, in inquiries of this nature, seems to be,

‘ Abandoning all projects for the general resolution of equations, to investigate regularly the abstract properties of each separate order or number of quantities, turning them into all shapes, sifting all their combinations, and constructing and examining the equations of different complex functions of them, in order to see if latent peculiarities be not to be traced out in some of them. Wherever any distinguishing property is found, it will, by the principles here explained, infallibly lead to some method for the degree to which it belongs; and, whoever may be fortunate enough to discover any such property, in five, six, or any higher order of quantities, will have the honour of removing the important and hitherto impenetrable barrier, which has so long obstructed the farther improvement of algebra.’

An Inquiry concerning the Weight ascribed to Heat. By Benjamin Count of Rumford, F.R.S. &c.

The experiments recited in this paper were made in the year 1787. They were occasioned by those of Dr. Fordyce, which are recorded in the 75th volume of the Transactions; and from which he concluded that water acquired an increase of weight by being frozen into ice. Having provided the necessary apparatus, which consisted of an excellent balance and two glass bottles, resembling our Florence flasks, made of thin glass, and of the same shape and dimensions, the Count put into one of them a certain quantity of pure distilled water, and into the other an equal weight of weak spirit of wine; and having sealed both the bottles hermetically, he suspended them in the arms of the balance, and placed the apparatus in a large room at the temperature of about 61° of Fahrenheit. When the bottles had been in this situation long enough to have acquired the temperature of the air, he wiped them dry, and brought them to the most exact equilibrium. Having left them in the same situation for about 12 hours, and finding no alteration in their respective weight, he removed them into a room, the air of which was at the temperature of 29° , and left them there for 48 hours. On returning to examine them, he found that the bottle which contained the water very sensibly preponderated, and that the water was frozen into a solid body of ice;

ice; while the spirit of wine in the other bottle manifested no sign of freezing. The result was very different from what the author had expected. When the apparatus was removed into the temperature of 61° , the ice gradually thawed, and the two bottles were restored to their original weight.—The experiment was repeated with the same result.

Having satisfied himself with regard to the accuracy of his balance, the ingenious author resumed his investigations of the increase of weight which fluids have been said to acquire on being congealed. Dr. Fordyce's fact having been corroborated, as he imagined, by his own experiments, he conceived that the increase of weight, which the frozen water had acquired, could be owing only to the loss of the latent heat which a fluid is known to evolve when it congeals; whence he concluded that, if the loss of latent heat added to the weights of one body, it must produce the same effect on another; and, therefore, the augmentation of the quantity of latent heat must, in all bodies, and in all cases, diminish their apparent weights. In order to examine the justness of this conclusion, he provided two bottles similar to those which he had before used, and put into one a determinate quantity of water, and into the other an equal weight of mercury; and, suspending them to the arms of a balance, he brought them to a perfect equilibrium in the temperature of 61° , and then removed them into the temperature of 34° , where they remained 24 hours. During this time, neither of them seemed to have acquired or lost any weight. Hence it appeared, 'that the quantity of heat lost by the water must have been very considerably greater than that lost by the mercury; the specific quantities of latent heat in water and in mercury having been determined to be to each other as 1000 to 33; but this difference in the quantities of heat lost produced no sensible difference in the weights of the fluids in question.' This experiment confirmed his suspicion that the apparent augmentation of the weight of the water, on being frozen, arose from some accidental cause.—In the farther investigation of this matter, he provided three bottles, resembling those which he had before used; into the first, he put a certain quantity of water, and a small thermometer; into the second, he put a like weight of spirit of wine, with a similar thermometer; and into the third, he put an equal weight of mercury. These bottles were hermetically sealed, and placed in a room of which the constant temperature for 24 hours was 61° ; and the contents of the two first-mentioned bottles appearing, by their inclosed thermometers, to be exactly at the same temperature, they were carefully wiped, and suffered to remain 2 hours longer; they were then all weighed, and

brought to the most exact equilibrium. They were afterward removed into a room of the temperature of 30° , where they remained during 48 hours. The two first-mentioned bottles, A and B, were suspended to the arms of the balance; and the third bottle, C, was suspended, at an equal height, to the arm of a stand constructed for the purpose, and placed as near as possible to the balance, with a very sensible thermometer suspended by the side of it. At the end of 48 hours, the three thermometers stood at the same point, viz. 29° Fahrenheit; and the bottles A and B remained in the most perfect equilibrium. The thermometer in the bottle A was inclosed in a solid cake of ice. The whole apparatus was then removed into a warm room, where it remained till the ice in the bottle A was thawed, and the three bottles had acquired the exact temperature of the surrounding air; and in this situation their weights remained unaltered.

This experiment was repeated several times, with the same result; 'the water, in no instance, appearing to gain, or to lose, the least weight, upon being frozen, or upon being thawed; neither were the relative weights of the fluids in either of the other bottles in the least changed, by the various degrees of heat, and of cold, to which they were exposed.'—The ingenious author takes his leave of this subject, with expressing his full conviction that,

'If heat be in fact a *substance*, or matter—a fluid *sui generis*, as has been supposed—which, passing from one body to another, and being accumulated, is the immediate cause of the phenomena we observe in heated bodies, (of which, however, I cannot help entertaining doubts,) it must be something so infinitely rare, even in its most condensed state, as to baffle all our attempts to discover its gravity. And, if the opinion which has been adopted by many of our ablest philosophers, that heat is nothing more than an intestine vibratory motion of the constituent parts of heated bodies, should be well founded, it is clear that the weights of bodies can in no wise be affected by such motion.'

By the experiments recited in this paper, the author seems to have clearly proved, that

'A quantity of heat equal to that which 4214 grains (or about $9\frac{1}{2}$ oz.) of gold would require to heat it from the temperature of freezing water to be *red hot*, has no sensible effect upon a balance capable of indicating so small a variation of weight as that of $\frac{1}{1000000}$ of the body in question; and if the weight of gold is neither augmented nor lessened by *one millionth part*, upon being heated from the point of freezing water, to that of a *bright red heat*, I think we may very safely conclude, that ALL ATTEMPTS TO DISCOVER ANY EFFECT OF HEAT UPON THE APPARENT WEIGHTS OF BODIES WILL BE FRUITLESS.'

NATURAL HISTORY.

Experiments to determine the Quantity of tanning Principle and gallic Acid contained in the Bark of various Trees. By George Biggin, Esq.

In the prosecution of these experiments, the author prepared a test for the tanning principle, by dissolving an ounce of common glue in two pounds of boiling water; and another for the gallic acid by a saturated solution of the sulphate of iron. He then saturated a strong infusion of bark, the method of making which he describes, with the solution of glue; so that the whole of the tanning principle was separated by precipitation. The precipitate, thus obtained, is a substance formed by the chemical union of the matter of skin with the tanning principle; or, in other words, a powder of leather. He also added a given quantity of water to the bark which had been deprived of its tanning principle by the process for obtaining the infusion, and he thus procured a strong infusion of the gallic acid. This latter infusion, in a pure state, affords little indication of the presence of the tanning principle, when tried by the test of the solution of glue: but, with the solution of sulphate of iron, it gives a strong black colour, the density of which corresponds to the quality of the bark.

Having established these tests, and the mode of applying them, the author's next object was to make a similar infusion of any bark, or vegetable substance, and to pay a strict attention to the specific gravity of the infusion, the quantity of precipitate of leather, and the density of colour produced by given quantities of one or the other test; and he thus obtained a comparative statement of the respective powers of any kind of bark, or vegetable substance, which he wished to examine. He has annexed a table, denominated the *Scale of Barks*, which exhibits the gallic acid and tanning principle, contained in twenty different barks; and which serves to determine their respective commercial utility, by comparing the quantity of tanning principle and price with those of oak-bark. As the gallic acid does not seem to combine with the matter of skin, and as its astringency will corrugate the surface, the author apprehends that, in the process of tanning, it is not only useless but detrimental.

An Account of some Experiments on the Fecundation of Vegetables.
In a Letter from Thomas Andrew Knight, Esq.

The principal object of Mr. Knight, in these experiments, was to obtain new and improved varieties of the apple, in order to supply the place of those which became diseased and unproductive, by having been cultivated beyond the period assigned.

by nature to their existence. As it would require several years to ascertain the success or failure of the process for this purpose, he began with investigating its effects on annual plants. The common pea seemed, for several reasons, to be well adapted to the design. Having in his garden a kind of pea which had ceased to be productive, Mr. K. opened a dozen of its immature blossoms; and destroying the male parts without injuring the female, he introduced the farina of a very large and luxuriant gray pea into one half of the blossoms as soon as they appeared mature, and left the other half as they were. The seeds of the latter gradually withered; whereas those of the other pods attained maturity; and, in the succeeding spring, the plants produced by them were exceedingly luxuriant, and the colour of their leaves and stems indicated that they had all exchanged their whiteness for the colour of the male parent. By introducing the farina of another white variety, this colour was discharged, and a numerous variety of new kinds was produced; many of which were in size, and in every other respect, much superior to the original white kind.

The dissimilarity, observed in the produce of different kinds of farina, pointed out an easy method of ascertaining whether superfœtation, the existence of which has been admitted among animals, could also take place in the vegetable world: 'For, as the offspring of a white pea is always white, unless the farina of a coloured kind be introduced into the blossom, and, as the colour of the gray one is always transferred to its offspring, though the female be white, it readily occurred to me, (says Mr. K.) that if the farina of both were mingled, or applied at the same moment, the offspring of each could be easily distinguished.'

The author's experiments were not sufficient to decide this question: but another kind of superfœtation, applying the term to a process in which one seed appears to have been the offspring of two males, very frequently occurred. Mr. Knight found that, by introducing the farina of the largest and most luxuriant kinds into the blossoms of the most diminutive, and by reversing this process, the powers of the male and female, in their effects on the offspring, are exactly equal.

'The vigour of the growth, (says Mr. K.) the size of the seeds produced, and the season of maturity, were the same, though the one was a very early, and the other a late variety. I had in this experiment, a striking instance of the stimulative effects of crossing the breeds; for the smallest variety, whose height rarely exceeded two feet, was increased to six feet; whilst the height of the large and luxuriant kind was very little diminished. By this process, it is evident, that any number of new varieties may be obtained;

and it is highly probable that many of these will be found better calculated to correct the defects of different soils and situations, than any we have at present; for, I imagine that all we now possess have in a great measure, been the produce of accident; and it will rarely happen, in this or any other case, that accident has done all that art will be found able to accomplish.

Mr. Knight's success, in producing improved varieties of the pea, induced him to make some similar experiments on wheat; but these did not answer his expectations. One extraordinary circumstance occurred in the course of these inquiries; viz, that, 'in the years 1795 and 1796, when almost the whole crop of corn in the island was blighted, the varieties thus obtained, and these only, escaped, in this neighbourhood, though sown in different soils and situations.'

The author's success with the apple, as far as he has been enabled to judge, has been equal to his hopes; and he has also obtained the same favourable result from similar experiments on the grape. All his experiments on this and other plants evinced, to his full satisfaction, that

'Improved varieties of every fruit and esculent plant may be obtained by this process, and that nature intended that a sexual intercourse should take place between neighbouring plants of the same species. The probability of this will be apparent, when we take a view of the variety of methods which nature has taken to disperse the farina, even of those plants in which it has placed the male and female parts within the same empalement.'

At the close of this paper, Mr. Knight recommends a greater attention to the melioration of the most valuable esculent plants.

'The improvement of animals is attended with much expence, and the improved kinds necessarily extend themselves very slowly; but a single bushel of improved wheat or peas may in ten years be made to afford seed enough to supply the whole island; and a single apple, or other fruit-tree, may within the same time be extended to every garden in it.'

On different sorts of Lime used in Agriculture, By Smithson Tennant, Esq.

Having been informed that, in the neighbourhood of Doncaster, two kinds of lime were used as manure, which produced very different effects, Mr. Tennant determined to investigate their nature, and the peculiar properties which they were observed to possess. One kind was used sparingly, because a large proportion of it, instead of increasing, diminished the fertility of the soil: but a large quantity of the other kind was never found injurious; and the spots which were covered with it, instead of becoming barren, which was the effect

of the former sort, were remarkably fertile. On examining the composition of that kind of lime which was most beneficial, it was found to consist entirely of calcareous earth. By an exposure to the air for about three months, it absorbed four-fifths of the fixed air required to saturate it. The other sort contained three parts of pure calcareous earth, and two of magnesia; and the quantity of fixed air, which it had absorbed in the time above-mentioned, was only 42 hundredths of that combined with it before it was burnt. As it was probable that the magnesia contained in this lime was the cause of its peculiar properties, Mr. T. pursued a course of experiments, with a view of determining the effects of that substance on the growth of vegetables; and it was found, in many varied trials, which we cannot specify, to be injurious. He adds that, in countries in which the magnesian lime is employed, the barrenness of any spot, on which a heap of it has been laid, continues for many years.

Magnesian limestone may be easily distinguished from that which is purely calcareous, by the slowness of its solution in acids; and hence it is suspected that the kind of marble, which is called *Dolomite*, (from M. Dolomieu, who first remarked its peculiarity in dissolving slowly,) might be of similar composition. The crystallized structure of magnesian limestone seems to shew that it has been formed by the chemical combination of the two earths, and its difficulty of solution may be owing to the mutual attraction of the different parts which compose it. This substance abounds in various parts of England. It extends for 30 or 40 miles from the S. W. of Workesop in Nottinghamshire, to the vicinity of Ferry-bridge in Yorkshire; and there is a quarry of it near Sherburn. The lime mentioned by Mr. Marshall, (in his view of the agriculture of the Midland counties,) which is made at Breedon near Derby, and which, when used in large quantities, is destructive to vegetables, contains the same proportion of magnesia with that already described. It is common in Northumberland, and is probably that species of lime which the farmers call *hot*, by way of distinction from the other sort, which is denominated *mild*. These two kinds are contiguous to each other at Matlock; the rocks on the side of the river, where the houses are built, being magnesian, and the others calcareous. Mr. Tennant has annexed a table, exhibiting the results of several experiments on different substances, with a particular view of estimating the quantities of magnesia and of lime, &c. contained in them.

Observations on the different Species of Asiatic Elephants, and their Mode of Denition. By John Corse, Esq.

The

The Asiatic Elephants are divided by the natives of Bengal into two casts, without any regard to the appearance, shape, or size of the tusks in the male, as these circumstances serve merely to characterize some varieties in the species.

The *koomareah* (which gives denomination to one cast) is a deep-bodied, strong, compact elephant, with a large trunk, legs short, but thick in proportion to the size of the animal. The *merghee* cast, when full grown, is generally taller than the former, but has not so compact a form, nor is he so strong, or so capable of bearing fatigue; his legs are long, he travels fast, has a lighter body, and his trunk is both short and slender, in proportion to his height. A large trunk is always esteemed a great beauty in an elephant; so that the *koomareah* is preferred, not only for this, but for its superior strength, by which it can undergo greater fatigue, and carry heavier loads than the *merghee*. As there appears, however, no predilection in any of these elephants to have connection with his own particular kind, from an indiscriminate intercourse several varieties are produced, partaking of the qualities of their respective progenitors. This mixed breed is in greater or less estimation, in proportion as it partakes of the qualities of the *koomareah*, or *merghee* cast.

A breed from these two casts is called *Sunkareah*; and there are several other varieties, which are generally to be found in the same herd: but crossing the breed renders it difficult for the hunters to ascertain the variety. The torrid zone appears to be the natural clime of elephants, and the most favourable for producing the largest and hardiest sort: when this animal migrates beyond the tropics, the species degenerates.

The tusks of the male elephant, which are generally larger and project farther than those of the female, are fixed very deep in the upper jaw; and the root, or upper part, which is hollow and filled with a core, goes as high as the insertion of the trunk, round the margin of the nasal opening to the throat; which opening is just below the protuberance of the forehead; and through this the elephant breathes, and by means of it sucks up water into his trunk.—Though the African elephant is smaller than the Asiatic, yet the largest tusks generally come from Africa; and they are judged by the ivory-dealers in London to be of a better texture, and less liable to turn yellow after having been manufactured. This, says the present writer, is probably owing to the tusks having lain longer in Africa, before they were imported, than those which are brought from Asia; to which another circumstance may be added, that the intense heat of a vertical sun will undoubtedly render the ivory firmer and harder, if the tusks happen to lie on the scorching sand, or in any other dry situation.—Mr. Corse observes that the increase of the tusk arises from circular layers of ivory, applied

applied internally, from the cone on which they are formed, similar to what happens in the growth of the horns of some other animals.—If the period in which one of these circular layers is completed could be ascertained, this might lead us to fix, with tolerable precision, the age of an elephant, by counting the circles in each tusk.

The principal subject of the paper before us is the dentition of the elephant; and it contains many curious observations, that are the result of an attentive and accurate examination, illustrated by a variety of suitable engravings. We cannot pursue the author's minute and circumstantial detail, in describing the progressive growth and regular succession of the grinders of this animal, for it has no incisive or cutting teeth; nor can we recount the different periods necessary for their formation. It appears from the whole, that

‘The formation of the teeth and mode of dentition, in the elephant, have but little analogy with those of any other quadruped; nature having, by a peculiar and wonderful contrivance, and in the most convenient manner, supplied this animal with a regular succession of teeth, until he attains a very advanced period of life: an advantage which, as far as we know, no other quadruped possesses.’

Some Observations on the Structure of the Teeth of graminivorous Quadrupeds: particularly those of the Elephant and Sus Æthiopicus. By Everard Home, Esq.

In this continuation of the subject of the preceding paper, Mr. Home explains the structure of the elephant's teeth; and takes occasion to point out the general principle on which all teeth are formed, that have the enamel intermixed with the substance of the teeth; a subject which has not hitherto been investigated. He begins with observing, that

‘The teeth of carnivorous animals are formed from a vascular pulp, of the same shape with the future tooth, upon the external surface of which the substance of the tooth begins to grow, and increases till it is completely formed. This pulp is inclosed by a capsule, the cavity of which, while the tooth is growing, is filled with a viscid fluid, similar to the synovia of joints; and this fluid, by the absorption of the thinner parts, becomes inspissated to a proper state for crystallization, so as to form the enamel, which adheres to the surface of the tooth. Teeth formed in this way, are composed of two parts, of dissimilar texture: one, the enamel, which is striated; the other the substance of the tooth, which is laminated, like ivory, being more compact than common bone, and less so than the enamel; but differing from both in the mode of its formation.’

‘The tusks of the elephant are formed upon a pulp, similar to teeth; but the teeth of this animal differ from those just described in being composed of a great many flattened oval processes; these, while growing,

ing, are detached ; but, when completely formed, their bases unite together, and make the body of the tooth, to which the fangs are afterwards added ; and, as the fangs are lengthened, the tooth rises in the jaw. This is what may be considered as the tooth itself, being composed of the same materials as the teeth of carnivorous animals ; but, in addition, there is another substance, which unites all the processes together, laterally, into one mass : this is softer than the substance of the tooth, and, upon examination, proves to be similar, in its texture and formation, to common bone.

The circumstances, which led the author to that view of the subject which he has here stated, are particularly explained ; and the explanation is aided by a number of engravings. In the drawings, he has represented the ligamentous substance of the elephant's tooth, with its projecting membranes, and the vascular pulps ; together with the mode in which the ossification takes place in the one, and the formation of the substance of the tooth in the other. This structure, he observes, is not peculiar to the elephant, but common to the teeth of all animals whose food requires to be ground, or much bruised, before it is swallowed.

As the complex tooth of the elephant is compiled of three different structures, each of which has a peculiar process for its formation, Mr. Home was hence led to an investigation whether the materials themselves were different, or only differently arranged. Mr. Hatchett aided the author in this inquiry by a series of experiments, which are here stated, with the conclusions deduced from them. Mr. Hatchett considers lime and phosphoric acid as the essentially constituent principles of the three different structures. The mixture of bony matter with the enamel, and with the substance of the tooth, is common to all graminivorous quadrupeds : ' but the whole number of grinding teeth belonging to each side of the jaw being confined in a case of bone, so as to form one large grinding surface, and the teeth being pushed forward from behind, instead of a second set being formed immediately under the fangs of the first, as in other animals, are peculiarities not met with in any teeth hitherto described, except those of the elephant.' The author, however, in the course of his inquiries, has discovered the same peculiarities in the teeth of the *Sus Æthiopicus* ; which he has described, and exhibited in corresponding figures. From the several circumstances here recited, he infers that this animal, in a natural state, (which is allied to the elephant in the structure of its tusks, the mode of formation of the grinding teeth, and the manner in which they succeed one another, and which differs from other species of the same genus,) is supplied with a different kind of food from that of other
other

other hogs, and is an animal of greater longevity. He has extended his inquiry into the structure of the teeth of other quadrupeds, such as the horse, cow, and sheep, as well as the hippopotamus and rhinoceros; and he has furnished the physiologist with many curious facts and observations, which serve to improve this branch of comparative anatomy.

Experiments and Observations on Shell and Bone. By Charles Hatchett, Esq.

The first series of experiments here recited consists of those which were made on the shells of marine animals. They were immersed in acetous acid, or nitric acid diluted; and the solution was always made without heat. The carbonate of lime was precipitated by carbonate of ammoniac, or of potash; and phosphate of lime (if present previously) was precipitated by pure or caustic ammoniac. If any other phosphate, like that of soda, was suspected, it was discovered by solution of acetite of lead. Bones and teeth were also subjected to the action of the acetous, or diluted nitric and muriatic acid. The dissolved portion was examined by the above mentioned precipitants; and, when it was practicable, the phosphoric acid was also separated by nitric or sulphuric acid.

Mr. H. has distributed marine shells into two general classes; viz. those which have a porcellaneous aspect, with an enamelled surface, and, when broken, are often in a slight degree of a fibrous texture; and others, which have generally, if not always, a strong epidermis, under which is the shell, principally or entirely composed of the substance called *nacre*, or mother of pearl. The porcellaneous shells appeared, after many experiments, to consist of carbonate of lime, cemented by a very small portion of animal gluten.—Those of the second description were found not to differ from the former, except by a smaller proportion of carbonate of lime; which, instead of being simply cemented by animal gluten, is intermixed with, and serves to harden, a membranaceous or cartilaginous substance; and this substance, even when deprived of the carbonate of lime, still retains the figure of the shell.

Mr. Hatchett proceeded to examine the covering substance of crustaceous marine animals, such as the crab, lobster, prawn, and crayfish; and he concludes that

‘Phosphate of lime, mingled with the carbonate, is a chemical characteristic which distinguishes the crustaceous from the testaceous substances; and that the principal difference in the qualities of each, when complete, is caused by the proportion of the hardening substances, relative to the gluten by which they are cemented; or by the abundance and consistency of the gelatinous, membranaceous, or carti-

cartilaginous substance, in and on which, the carbonate of lime, or the mixture of carbonate and phosphate of lime, has been secreted and deposited.'

He is hence led to approve the conduct of Linné in not classing the Echini among the testaceous animals. The kind of substance above described approximates to the nature of bone; which has been proved by Mr. Gahn and others principally to consist, as far as the ossifying substance is concerned, of phosphate of lime.—'The bones of fish, such as those of the salmon, mackerel, brill, and skate, afforded phosphate of lime; and the only difference was, that the bones of these fish appeared in general to contain more of the cartilaginous substance, relative to the phosphate of lime, than is commonly found in the bones of quadrupeds.'

It appeared, also, from other experiments, that, though the principal effects, during ossification, are produced by phosphate of lime, yet there is not only some sulphate, but also some carbonate of lime, which enters into the composition of bones; and the author adds that, 'as the carbonate of lime exceeds in quantity the phosphate of lime in crustaceous marine animals, and in the egg-shells of birds, so in bones it is *vice versa*.'

Mr. Hatchett has remarked a striking resemblance, in several particulars, between the enamel of teeth and the porcellaneous shells. The only essential difference seems to be that the latter consists of carbonate of lime, and the former of phosphate of lime, each of them being cemented by a small portion of gluten. He has also observed a great similarity in shells composed of mother of pearl, to the substance of teeth and bone.

'As porcellaneous shell (he says) principally differs from mother of pearl, only by a relative proportion between the carbonate of lime and the gluten or membrane, in like manner, the enamel appears only to be different from tooth or bone, by being destitute of cartilage, and by being principally formed of phosphate of lime, cemented by gluten.'—'This difference in the latter case seems to explain why the bones and teeth of animals fed on madder become red, when, at the same time, the like colour is not communicated to the enamel; for it appears probable, that the cartilages, which form the original structure of the teeth and bones, become the channels by which the tinging principle is communicated and diffused.'

From other experiments, not particularly detailed, the author infers that

'Membranes and cartilages (whether destined to become bones by a natural process, as in young animals, or whether they become such by morbid ossification, as often happens in those which are aged,) do not contain the ossifying substance, or phosphate of lime, as a constituent

tuent principle.'—'If horns are examined, few I believe will be found to contain phosphate of lime in such a proportion as to be considered an essential ingredient.'—'Fossil bones resemble bones, which, by combustion, have been deprived of their cartilaginous part; for, they retain the figure of the original bone, without being bone in reality, as one of the most essential parts has been taken away.'

By an examination of the fossil bones of Gibraltar, as well as some glossopetræ or shark's teeth, the author found that

'The latter afforded phosphate and carbonate of lime; but the carbonate of lime was visibly owing principally to the matter of the calcareous strata which had inclosed these teeth, and which had insinuated itself into the cavities left by the decomposition of the original cartilaginous substance.'—'Bones, which keep their figure after combustion, resemble charcoal made from vegetables replete with fibre; and cartilaginous bones which lose their shape by the same cause may be compared to succulent plants which are reduced in bulk and shape in a similar manner. From these last experiments, I much question if bodies consisting of phosphate of lime, like bones, have concurred materially to form strata of limestone or chalk; for it appears to be improbable, that phosphate is converted into carbonate of lime, after these bodies have become extraneous fossils. The destruction or decomposition of the cartilaginous parts of teeth and bones in a fossil state, must have been the work of a very long period of time, unless accelerated by the action of some mineral principle: for, after having, in the usual manner, steeped in muriatic acid the os humeri of a man brought from Hythe in Kent, and said to have been taken from a Saxon tomb, I found the remaining cartilage nearly as complete as that of a recent bone. The difficult destructibility of substances of a somewhat similar nature, appears also from the mining implements formed of horn, which are not unfrequently found in excavations of high antiquity.'

The nature of Mr. Home's paper on the *Dissection of an Hermaphrodite Dog*, which also contains a variety of curious observations on the formation of hermaphrodites in general, will not allow us to give a particular detail of its contents.

The last article in this volume is a *Catalogue of Oriental Manuscripts presented to the Royal Society by Sir William and Lady Jones*. By Charles Wilkins, Esq. This catalogue is continued from the Transactions for the year 1798. The volume closes with a list of presents of books and pamphlets, &c. and the index, as usual.

ART. II. *Travels in England, Scotland, and the Hebrides; undertaken for the Purpose of examining the State of the Arts, the Sciences, Natural History, and Manners, in Great Britain: containing Mineralogical Descriptions of the Country round Newcastle; of the Mountains of Derbyshire; of the Environs of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Perth, and St. Andrew's; of Inverary, and other Parts of Argyleshire; and of the Cave of Fingal. Translated from the French of B. Faujas Saint-Fond, Member of the National Institute, and Professor of Geology in the Museum of Natural History at Paris.* 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Ridgway. 1799.

WITH the name of Faujas de St. Fond, many of our readers have long been acquainted. Those, in particular, who have devoted their attention to philosophical pursuits, will recollect that the labours of this gentleman have frequently called for our notice, in the course of our accounts of scientific *Foreign Publications*. When the flighty fashion of ærostatical expeditions was at its height, M. de St. Fond was among the foremost to investigate the nature and record the attempts at establishing this new mode of travelling*. Finding, however, at length, that the dominion of the air was not yet to be surrendered to mortal man, he has been contented to return to his allegiance to his mother earth; and being convinced that the safest mode of inspecting the affairs of this globe was by moving over its surface, not by regarding them from "the dizzy height" of the third or fourth heaven, he here presents us with an account of some peregrinations performed in the usual modes of conveyance. Whether his observations soar above the usual level of ability may, perhaps, appear from the account which we shall now give of them.

This tour was made in the autumn of 1784; and the reader is informed, in a short preface, that the narrative 'was prepared for the press in the second year of the revolution; but the troubles of that period rendered it necessary to delay its publication.' The travels were undertaken for the purpose of collecting information on many interesting subjects; and the British reader will probably find some additional entertainment in observing the impressions made on an inquisitive and intelligent foreigner, by the various objects which attracted his

* We do not mean that this gentleman was one of the bold adventurers into the aerial regions, for we do not remember that he ever actually ascended in a balloon: but that his attention was particularly bestowed on these machines, and on the voyages made with them, will sufficiently appear by consulting our 69th vol. p. 551, &c. and vol. 71. p. 379.

notice in this country.—The work is divided into chapters; and the subject of the first is London. M. St. Fond commences his remarks with a description of the breakfasts at the house of Sir Joseph Banks, ‘the rendezvous of those who cultivate the sciences, where foreigners are always received with politeness and affability.’—‘Men of science and letters,’ the author remarks, ‘become more sociable and more intimately allied, by enjoying, as in this city, a rallying point, presenting the charms of mild society, in conjunction with those pure pleasures which every thing connected with knowledge and instruction always affords.’ This is a handsome and just encomium on that well placed hospitality which is so encouraging to the communication of useful knowledge; and which is to be regarded as one among many proofs of that liberal and active patronage of whatever promises utility and public benefit, which so peculiarly distinguishes the character of the President of the Royal Society.

M. St. Fond was presented by Sir Joseph Banks with two ounces of the seed of a species of hemp obtained from China, of a quality superior to the hemp cultivated in Europe. This, on his return to France, he distributed among his most scientific friends; and he relates the success with which it was cultivated in the South of France.

‘I wait for peace,’ says he, ‘to repay my obligations to the English, for it is no more than just to return that which they have so generously lent us. I should have published, a long time ago, the result of these experiments, but have been prevented by the melancholy remembrance which reminded me, that of eleven persons to whom I gave some of the seed from China, and who, with an enthusiasm for the public interest, devoted their whole attention to its cultivation, eight have been dragged to the scaffold, without respect for names, signalized by virtue and talents. Buffon was dead—they took his son.’—

Some particulars are mentioned of several well-known characters, to whom the sciences are much indebted, and with whom the author became acquainted in this country; Mr. Whitehurst, Mr. Cavallo, Dr. Lettsom, Messrs. Wedgewood, Ramsden, Winch, John Sheldon, &c. Some very curious anecdotes are related of the last named. ‘There was,’ says the author, ‘none of the English gravity about him. I love to meet with such exceptions; but I know that he who is by lively and vigorous conceptions elevated to great undertakings, who labours with ardour, and unites a variety of information to an aptitude and passionate desire for knowing much, cannot have the same uniformity of character, nor act in the same systematic manner with common men.’

M. St.

M. St. Fond does not confine his remarks to objects merely intellectual. We are not disposed, indeed, to deny that there is much good sense in a substantial English dinner; and the author has described two, with much commendation, of which he partook in company with the members of the Royal Society. He bestows a strong eulogy on coffee; which, he observes, Voltaire called *the quintessence of the mind*. 'In France, we commonly drink only one cup of good coffee after dinner. In England, it seems to be all one *what kind* they drink, provided they have four or five cup fulls.' He complains of this liquor being rendered 'so disgusting, in a country where it is so necessary for removing melancholy humours.'

The second chapter contains the particulars of a visit to Mr. Herschel at Slough, which gave us much pleasure. It concludes with the following paragraph:

'I remained until day-light in that astonishing observatory, constantly occupied in travelling in the heavens, with a guide whose boundless complaisance was never wearied by my ignorance, and the importunity of my questions. I passed about seven hours there, employed without intermission in observing the stars. That delightful night appeared no more than a dream to me, and seemed to last only a few instants; but the remembrance of it is indelible; and the grateful recollection of the kindness with which Mr. Herschel, and his interesting sister, condescended to receive me, will never be erased from my heart.'

The author afterward visited the gardens at Kew, and the British Museum. He justly prefers the former to any other gardens of the kind which he has ever seen. At the British Museum, he censures the want of arrangement.—Many other curiosities of the capital are noticed.

Towards the end of August, M. St. Fond departed for Scotland, in company with Count Paul Andreani of Milan, Mr. William Thornton, (an American gentleman,) and M. de Mécies.—M. St. Fond was indefatigable in his mineralogical examinations of the country over which he travelled. They stopped some days at Newcastle to view the coal mines and manufactories. The simplicity of the buildings, and the economy observed in the management of these concerns, obtain much commendation. 'It is,' says the author, 'a taste for pomp and grandeur which almost always ruins the manufactories of France, and prevents those new ones which we want, from being established.' Few things attracted more of the notice and admiration of the travellers, than the roads constructed with so much persevering ingenuity for transporting coals from the mines to the water side. 'The great economy produced by these contrivances, enables the English to sell the

coal which they export, at a lower price than it can be afforded from our own mines, in all cases where we have to bring it more than three or four miles by land. Marseilles affords an example in point, where the coal of England is cheaper than the coal from their own mines, of which there are a great number within four or five leagues.' The author relates a conversation between several learned Americans, among whom was Dr. Benjamin Franklin; in which it was maintained that to her coal mines, principally, England is indebted for her wealth and power; the comfort of cheap fuel being so great an encouragement to industry in cold countries. "I have observed," said one, "in several provinces of France, through which I have travelled in winter, that from the want of fuel, the effect of the cold was such, that whole families were compelled to retire to their beds, where they remained in a state of torpor, unable to labour, and consuming in a few days all their little savings."—"That season which is so fatal to the industry of other countries, does not diminish the labour of the English people; and the necessary consequence of a great mass of population, constantly employed in pursuits of commerce and manufactures, is an increase of wealth, equally advantageous to the state and to individuals."

In the road to Edinburgh, and indeed every where throughout his tour, the author has examined and described the internal organization of the country. The hills of Dodmill, and Channel Kirk inn, which abound with many varieties of trapp, he particularly recommends 'to those who consider the materials that enter into the formation of mountains, objects worthy of their attention and inquiries. It would be difficult to find a place more favourable for this study, since here it may be said, Nature displays herself uncovered, and affords the observer an opportunity of tracing the manner in which she rudely sketches or perfects porphyry with a basis of trapp.'

The principal object of M. St. Fond's inquiry, in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, appears to have been the grand iron foundry at Carron, which he visited:—but the regulations established at those works did not admit of his obtaining unlimited communications. The travellers then proceeded to Glasgow; and the author has given an account of many volcanic productions observed in the environs of that place. They continued their route by Dumbarton, and along the banks of the beautiful lake Loch-lomond, to Inverary: but, as they were there at the time when the justiciary lords were on the circuit, the travellers would have found very indifferent accommodations, had they not fortunately been provided with letters of introduction to the Duke of Argyle, who was then at Inverary Castle,

Castle, and by whom they were received with great politeness and hospitality. We find a description of the Castle, and of a quarry at the extremity of the park, in which was a bank of porphyry above a bank of limestone. The porphyry was of a reddish ground, and immediately succeeded the vegetable earth.

Here, the customs and pleasures of the table again attracted a share of M. St. Fond's observations; and Inverary Castle afforded good scope for his remarks. He disapproves the English forks and sharp-pointed knives, and takes a comparative view of the *table-tactics* of the French and of the English. He compliments us with the praise of dexterity. 'In England, the fork is always held in the left hand, and the knife in the right. The fork holds the meat down, the knife cuts it, and the pieces may be carried to the mouth with either. The motion is quick and precise. The manœuvres at an English dinner are founded upon the same principle as the Prussian discipline.—Not a moment is lost!' 'In France, when the meat is cut in pieces, the knife is laid down on the right side of the plate, and the fork is changed from the left to the right hand, with which it is lifted to the mouth,' &c.—We shall notice one more of the author's remarks on this topic:—'in England, I always found that all classes of people eat a great deal more than the French. I do not know that they are more healthy; indeed, I doubt they are not; but this I know, that Dumoulin, one of the most celebrated physicians of Paris, once told me, that he was never raised in the night to visit any person who had not supped.'—The praise of superior prowess, thus bestowed on us, we receive with great diffidence. We have had the pleasure of seeing some of M. St. Fond's countrymen do very commendable honour to an entertainment, and (to their credit be it added) without imitating us by entering into too nice a disquisition on its merits.—The advice implied in the latter part of the author's remark, many will do well to consider.

Pursuing their journey, at Dalmally, Mr. Patrick Fraser, schoolmaster, 'a modest, well informed man,' undertook to accompany them to the Isle of Staffa. Some antient tombs near Dalmally, seen by the author, form an interesting object of inquiry. He was likewise here informed that monuments of a different kind were to be seen at the house of Mr. Macnab, a locksmith. 'He has in his possession,' said Patrick Fraser, 'a precious manuscript, containing several of the poems of Ossian in the Celtic language. You shall have the pleasure of hearing him sing them; for the carolling of the sublime

verses of this ancient poet has always been a sort of amusement, which the inhabitants of the mountains and of the Hebrides have preserved and transmitted from generation to generation.' They went to the house, but Mr. Macnab was from home; and therefore, as the manuscript was always kept under lock and key, a sight of it could not be obtained. His brother expressed his regret at not being able to shew to them a treasure, of which his family had been in possession for more than four hundred years.

On their arrival at Oban, the author's companions proceeded in small fishing boats for the Isle of Mull, while he waited for a more commodious method of conveyance, and found employment in examining the neighbouring hills. His time here would not have passed unsatisfactorily, if he could have escaped the persecuting complaisance of a highland piper. A pleasant circumstance, however, was the arrival of a British officer, Mr. Macdonald, in his way to the Isle of Sky; who, being informed of the intended expedition to the Isle of Staffa, requested to be of the party. The boat in which they were to proceed being ready, they departed from Oban. On arriving at Torloisk in the Isle of Mull, the author was informed that his friends had embarked early in the morning for Staffa, being encouraged by the favourable appearance of the weather: but, a few hours after their departure, the prospect changed, and the sea became tempestuous. This weather continued all the next day, and occasioned great anxiety. On the third day, however, to the author's great satisfaction, his friends returned; not without having sustained much fatigue, and other inconveniences. The recital of their hardships did not discourage M. St. Fond and Mr. Macdonald; neither was Mr. Thornton prevented, by having experienced them, from joining in the second expedition.

On the next morning, therefore, they set off for the cave of Fingal. This extraordinary cavern has already been so fully described, that we think it unnecessary to dilate on the present account:—but M. St. Fond has given a chapter to the natural history of the Isle of Staffa, accompanied with two picturesque views, executed with great neatness. He says that

* Sir Joseph Banks was the first who gave to the cave of Staffa the name of the Cave of Fingal. I made minute inquiries to know what relation this cave had to the father of Ossian. I was assured the mistake was owing to the name being equivocal. The following is their explanation: The true name of the cave is *An-ua-vine*. *An*, the; *ua*, grotto, cave, cavern; *vine*, melodious. The name of Fingal, in the same language, is spelled and pronounced *fion* in the nominative. But the Earse nouns are declinable, and the genitive is

fne: so that if one wished to express the cave of Fingal in the Erse language, he would write *an-ua-fne*.—‘In this case, the observation of Mr. Troil, on the agreeable sound which he heard issuing from the bottom of the cave, when the water rushed in, is valuable, and comes in support of the true denomination.’

The author relates that, in the northern part of his tour, an universal and implicit belief seemed to prevail of the authenticity of the poems of Ossian. His own opinion is not declared: but he has refrained from giving offence by any appearance of incredulity.—Staffa was at this time inhabited by two families, whose number, men, women, and children, amounted to sixteen. We are informed that it was ‘let at the rent of 12 l. sterling; on account, probably, of its fishery, for its territorial value ought to be considered as nothing.’

M. St. Fond and his companions had the advantage of favourable weather, and returned to Torloisk the same evening. In the description of the Isle of Mull, one of the greatest natural curiosities mentioned is a large regular wall of black basalt near Achnacregs.—

‘A vast black rock, perfectly perpendicular, and almost insulated, forced itself upon my attention, which I conjectured might be a basaltic colonade. After walking about a mile, I arrived at the foot of one of the most astonishing productions of volcanic combustion that I ever had an opportunity of observing. It presented the appearance of an antient circus, formed of natural walls of basalt, rising perpendicularly with so regular a construction, that at first view the spectator cannot avoid thinking it to be the production of human industry and art. But human force, heightened by all the aid of mechanic powers, could never have been capable of elevating such enormous masses. The whole must be regarded as the effect of a vast combustion, which, instead of destroying, has here produced appearances analogous to those of a creative power.’

This ‘grand natural monument’ is very particularly described.

It is not necessary closely to follow the steps of M. St. Fond on his return. His route was occasionally varied, according to the attractions of different objects of curiosity. At Killin, a small place near Loch Tay, he was unexpectedly accosted by one of his countrymen, M. de Bombelles, who was shortly afterward appointed ambassador to Portugal.—The following paragraph respecting him is of too remarkable a nature not to merit insertion:

‘From the course which M. de Bombelles pursued, as well as from a number of military and other charts which he had along with him, I judged that diplomacy and politics were more suitable to his taste than the natural sciences or the arts, and that he was probably charged with some particular mission, very foreign from the object of

my studies. I ought however to do M. de Bombelles' talents and activity the justice to say that he neglected nothing which was in any degree interesting to his country. This I had an opportunity of judging from some ostensible parts of a well written journal, which he communicated to me, at the time, and in which I saw several articles relative to rural economy and commerce.*

Being desirous of obtaining information concerning the pearl fishery of the river Tay, the author hired two fishermen, whose particular employment was searching for pearls.

'They conducted us,' says he*, 'to the river which runs in a very pure stream upon a bottom of sand or pebbles, and they soon brought up several dozens of shells, from three and a half to four inches long, and a little more than two inches broad; their exterior colour was a deep brown inclining a little to green. The upper shell was thick, and of a fine mother of pearl colour within, slightly tinged with rose colour. I regarded this species as belonging to the *ma pictorum* of Linnaeus, or at least as very nearly resembling it. The fishers engaged to open these shells in our presence, but stipulated for the reservation of the pearls, if any should be found.'—'I desired them to open the muscles before my fellow travellers, whilst I went to amuse myself with fishing some of them; but they were to inform me when they discovered any pearls. I was soon called, and shewn a very fine pearl, perfectly round and of a good colour. I looked at the shell and the pearl, and then told them that the pearl was not found in the muscle shewed me. The fishers assured me that it was, and my companions confirmed their assertion. I persisted however, and begged them to watch more narrowly the next time. I retired a few steps, and soon after, one exclaimed, we have found another. I went up, and on examining the muscle, pronounced that the pearl had been slipped into the shell. The fishers exhibited the utmost degree of astonishment; for it was clear that I could not have observed their motions. My fellow-travellers, who watched them, had been deceived, so well practised were these men. My art appeared so supernatural, that they confessed the imposition, and frankly shewed us other pearls which they had in reserve for the same purpose. They were anxious to learn my secret, which would save them the pains of opening a vast number of shells to no purpose, for they seldom found above one or two pearls in a week. As they knew no other language than the Erse, I could explain myself only by signs and gestures.'—

'My secret consisted in examining the outside of the muscle, and when neither of the parts had any cavity or perforation, but presented a surface smooth and free from callosities, I could pronounce without apprehension of being deceived, that there was no pearl in such a shell. If, on the contrary, the shell was pierced with augur-worms, and indented by other worms of the same kind, there were always found pearls, or at least the embryos of pearls. This observa-

* In this extract, we have taken the liberty of somewhat compressing the writer's style.

tion was the result of some inquiries in which I had been engaged a long time before, respecting the formation of that beautiful animal product. Buffon introduces the information which I communicated to him upon this subject, in his article upon pearls, page 125, vol. iv. of the *Natural History of Minerals*.'

The author relates some curious experiments by which pearls have been artificially produced.

At Kenmore, inquiries were made concerning an extraordinary flux and reflux of the waters of Loch Tay.—The desire of examining the hill of Kinnoul induced the author to visit Perth in his route. At this place, he sorted and packed up his collection of volcanic substances, and other mineralogical specimens: but the subsequent fate of these things we learn with regret, and we sincerely condole with the author on his loss. He says, that Dr. Swediaur kindly took on himself the charge of sending them to France: but 'this rich collection, the fruit of so much pain and so much pleasure, was lost, as well as the vessel in which it was embarked, on the coast of Dunkirk. The crew with difficulty were saved. I was deprived in a moment of a treasure to which I attached the greater value, because it contained a variety of new objects highly interesting to naturalists.'—'Fortunately, whenever I had leisure, I wrote exact descriptions of the specimens I collected.'

After having visited the University of St. Andrew's, the travellers returned to Edinburgh. At this city, the author became acquainted with some of our most celebrated literary characters; and he has given short accounts of the establishments of the University, of the Royal Society, and of other literary institutions. He returned to London through Manchester, Buxton, Birmingham, Oxford, &c.

From this sketch of their contents, some idea may be formed of these volumes. For ourselves, we confess that we have received entertainment from the perusal of them, if not any very solid instruction.

M. St. Fond travels in good humour; and the style of the narrative is easy as well as animated, and not ill preserved in the translation.—With regard to the large portion of the work which is devoted to mineralogical subjects, we observe an excessive propensity to refer the formation of basalt, trapp, and whinstone, to volcanic eruptions. The author's mind is too much warped by this theory; and his descriptions are often incorrect.

ART. III. *Insecto-Theology*: or, A Demonstration of the Being and Perfections of God, from a Consideration of the Structure and Economy of Insects. Illustrated with a Copper-plate. By M. Lesser; with Notes, by P. Lyonet. 8vo. pp. 450. 6s. Boards. Cadell, jun. and Davies. 1799.

IN the advertisement prefixed to this work, are given the lives of the two authors; or rather one of M. Lyonet, for of M. Lesser nothing is mentioned except the place of his birth, and the date of a publication entitled a *Lithology*.—The life of Lyonet is extracted from the Gentleman's Magazine; and, if we be allowed a critical retrospect, we shall observe that his biographer is not sufficiently sedate and temperate in his encomiums. The elegant and high compliment bestowed by Fontenelle on Leibnitz, "that of many Herculeases antiquity made only one, but of a single Leibnitz we may make many learned men," loses more than half of its grace and propriety when applied to M. Lyonet.

The following are the reasons assigned by the translator for the present work not having before appeared in English:

'That this work has not till now appeared in English is owing probably to the following reasons. When it was first published, the study of insects was little cultivated in Britain; the system of Linnæus, which reduced the chaos into order, was not yet perfected, and our language had not yet formed and adopted a number of words and terms which it was necessary should be current before a translation could be attempted. Even at this day the want of terms is probably the reason why the excellent publications of Reaumur, De Geer, and many others, are still only known in this country in their original language. In this respect the translator of the work now submitted to the public, must likewise throw himself on the indulgence of the reader. For many terms he has been obliged to make use either of the Latin or the French word; but he hopes never except when these words are perfectly well understood, and have become, through use, inoffensive to the English ear. But what no doubt chiefly tended to obstruct the translation of the book into English was, the difficulty of ascertaining the identical insects which the authors mention by local names without sufficient descriptions. It is not a mere knowledge of the languages in which the book was originally written, nor a mere acquaintance with the subject, that can enable a translator to overcome this difficulty. He must have an opportunity of consulting a variety of books, seldom to be met with in private libraries, and some of them rare even in the best public collections in this kingdom. The chief value of the present performance to naturalists will therefore consist in its identifying the greater part of the insects by the Linnæan name, an advantage which they well know how to appreciate,

'It must be mentioned that as the original work was published before the accurate definition of an insect was given by Linnæus, the word

word is used much more loosely than at present. By Lesser all the animals that compose Linnæus's class of Vermes are called insects; and even Lyonet, who defines an insect to be an animal with an external skeleton, gives the same name to snails. The naturalist, accustomed to the strict acceptation of the term, will revolt at this inaccuracy; but it was thought better to retain the expression, than to sacrifice the observations and reflections it serves to introduce.

Some part of the introduction is employed in proving that which scarcely needs a proof, viz. that the study of insects is a rational occupation. There is, indeed, no part of nature which may not be investigated with improvement and delight: "*Indagatio ipsarum rerum, tum maximarum tum occultissimarum, habet delectationem.*" Although moral and prudential wisdom be the great and prime concern of intelligent beings, there is not wanting time for speculations on nature. The motion of stars, the growth of plants, the organization of animals, the modifications of brute matter, all present themselves as worthy objects of study and contemplation. Each has its peculiar advantages and title to regard: if one study tends to enlarge and elevate our conceptions, another may be better suited to the endowments of life, and to the "bettering of man's estate." Yet there is abroad an opinion, engendered by presumption and ignorance, that those who busy themselves in the knowledge of plants, or of insects, are at best but laborious triflers; philosophers with minds as groveling and minute as the objects of their research. Is astronomy then a sublime science, only because the stars are placed high in the heavens; and is it a proof of a more enlarged understanding, to comprehend the anatomy of an elephant than that of a mouse? Some objections, however, are of such a nature, that to refute them seriously and elaborately is a disgrace; yet the zeal of M. Lesser, not contented with vindicating his favourite study from undeserved neglect, transports him to assign to it a superiority over other pursuits. His arguments on this head cannot deserve more than the praise of ingenuity:

'What would one think of an artist who should be able to reduce all the wheels and movements of a watch into so small a compass, that the whole might be set in a ring like a diamond? One would admire it without doubt; and indeed such a masterpiece would be worthy of admiration, and would be prized far above a watch of the common size. The same thing may be said of animals. The power and wisdom of the Creator seem particularly conspicuous in the formation of the most minute. Can we, then, justly neglect such a call upon our worship and adoration! However small these creatures are, even those which are with difficulty discovered by the aid of the microscope, they have all the parts that are necessary for them; they have all articulations, muscles, and nerves; and all are covered with a skin suited to their condition,

'Galen

'Galen supports with much sound sense the reasoning I here use, and perfectly justifies the conclusion. That great man says, that the smaller things are, the greater is their value, and that workman is the most to be prized, who can make in small compass what others cannot make but in large. He relates to this purpose, the instance of a sculptor of his time who represented, on a ring, the figure of Phaeton in a chariot drawn by four horses. The work was executed with so much delicacy, that the very reins of the horses were to be seen, and although their limbs were not larger than those of a flea, the teeth in their mouths were visible. From this Galen takes occasion to remark the infinite distance between the power of the creature, and that of the Creator, between the wisdom of the Being who formed the flea, and the skill of the sculptor, who had represented horses so very minute.'

To the merely physical philosopher, the notes of M. Lyonet will be more valuable than the text. The author (Lesser) undoubtedly possessed much knowledge, sound sense, and great piety: but his reasonings are not strict and logical. "*Philosophatur laxé et per rationes fluctuantes, quæ non constringunt animum, neque ad assensum impellunt.*" We do not mean to say that fervent piety and sound philosophy are incompatible, but that this author has not exhibited their union.

In p. 28, M. Lesser mentions that, if animals lose a limb, they cannot repair it; M. Lyonet, in a note, mentions as exceptions, that sea-stars, crabs, and lobsters, are able to replace their limbs: 'but (says he) this does not affect Lesser's reasoning, because it is not the star, crab, or lobster that repairs the limb, but *Nature*.' M. Lyonet, with all his great endowments, possessed a share of sophistry; this defence of Lesser is a very lame one; and an error lies somewhere between the two philosophers, of which we cannot easily get rid.

We will give an extract concerning a luminous insect in Surinam:

'*Shine like burning coals.*—Besides the insects which shine in the night, such as the glow worm, &c. there is one found in Surinam which deserves to be known on account of its singularity. According to the description which Mad. Merian gives of it, this animal, in its creeping state, seems to have a form approaching that of our small grasshoppers, but is much larger; like them it has a long proboscis by which it sucks the juice from the flowers of the pomegranate, and this proboscis remains with it all its life. After having quitted one skin, it changes its form, and appears under that of a large green fly like our Cicada. Its flight is then very rapid, and the noise it makes with its wings is like the sound of a cymbal. Although according to the ordinary course of nature, an insect, after having acquired wings, undergoes no farther change, yet this one, by the concurring testimony of the Indians which Mad. Merian says she had in part verified by her own experience, undergoes still a last transformation which renders it luminous, and which then procures it

it the name of the lantern fly. (*Fulgora Laternaria* Lin.) In this last transformation, besides other inconsiderable changes which happen to its body and wings, there issues, from the forepart of its head, a very long transparent bladder, coloured with reddish and greenish streaks, and which diffuses a light sufficient to enable a person to read pretty small print. This animal, by the description she gives of it, is then about four inches long, and the bladder occupies about a fourth of its whole length. Before Mad. Merian was acquainted with the luminous quality of this insect, the Indians brought her many of them which she shut up in a large box. Being alarmed one night with a singular noise which she heard in the house, she got up, lighted a candle, and went to see what it was. The noise came from the box; she opened it, and immediately there issued a flame, which increased her emotion, and made her throw down the box, whence there was now dispersed a new beam of light, as each animal got out of it. We may believe her fear did not long continue, but soon gave place to admiration, and she immediately set herself to regain animals so extraordinary, which had taken advantage of the fear they had occasioned to make their escape.'

The present work conspicuously displays the piety of the author, and the extensive knowledge of his annotator; and it seems well calculated to answer the end for which the editor designed it.

ART. IV. *The Credibility of Christianity vindicated*, in answer to Mr. Hume's Objections; in two Discourses preached before the University of Cambridge. By the Rev. S. Vince, A. M. F. R. S. Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy. 8vo. 1s. Wingrave, &c.

THE Essay on Miracles, by David Hume, has called forth a great variety of answers in the form of treatises, sermons, &c. and the opinions of the sceptical philosopher have been honored in their refutation by Bishops, Heads of Colleges, Professors, Doctors, &c.* In one point, all Mr. Hume's opponents agree, viz. that his argument against miracles has no stability in truth. Is it not then desirable, instead of so many and differently conducted refutations, to have one that shall be clear, precise, and decisive, to end the controversy?

The present refutation may be so denominated, on principles assumed by its framer: but it is no refutation on those principles by which Hume meant that the question should be judged. In these discourses, the argument is made to depend on new grounds of determination: but, to shew previously that such grounds are proper, and to be admitted, would lead to very intricate and contentious discussion. What is

* Douglas, Adams, Campbell, Price, &c.

here advanced concerning the moral motives and ends of miracles, the necessity that they should be wrought, and the power of effecting them, Hume would undoubtedly controvert; as must be evident to every one who has read his essays, and his dialogues concerning natural religion.—It may be proper to state, in Mr. Vince's own words, part of the principles on which he grounds his refutation :

‘ What we mean by the laws of nature, are those laws which are deduced from that series of events, which, by divine appointment, follow each other in the *moral* and *physical* world; the *former* of which we shall here have occasion principally to consider, the present question altogether respecting the *moral* government of God—a consideration which our author has entirely neglected, in his estimation of the credibility of miracles. Examining the question therefore upon this principle, it is manifest, that the extraordinary nature of the fact is no ground for disbelief, provided such a fact, in a *moral* point of view, was, from the condition of man, become necessary; for in that case, the Deity, by dispensing his assistance in proportion to our wants, acted upon the same principle as in his more ordinary operations. For however opposite the *physical* effects may be, if their *moral* tendency be the same, they form a part of the moral law. Now in those actions which are called miracles, the Deity is directed by the same moral principle as in his usual dispensations; and therefore being influenced by the same motive to accomplish the same end, the laws of God's moral government are not violated, such laws being established by the *motives* and the *ends produced*, and not by the *means employed*. To prove therefore the moral laws to be the same in those actions called miraculous, as in common events, it is not the *actions themselves* which are to be considered, but the *principles* by which they were directed, and their *consequences*, for if these be the same, the Deity acts by the same laws. And here, moral analogy will be found to confirm the truth of the miracles recorded in scripture. But as the moral government of God is directed by motives which lie beyond the reach of human investigation, we have no principles by which we can judge concerning the probability of the happening of any new event which respects the moral world; we cannot therefore pronounce any extraordinary event of that nature to be a violation of the moral law of God's dispensations; but we can nevertheless judge of its agreement with that law, so far as it has fallen under our observation. But our author leaves out the consideration of God's moral government, and reasons simply on the facts which are said to have happened, without any reference to an end; we will therefore examine how far his conclusions are just upon this principle.

‘ He defines miracles to be “ a violation of the laws of nature ;” he undoubtedly means the *physical* laws, as no part of his reasoning has any reference to them in a *moral* point of view. Now these laws must be deduced, either from his own view of events only, or from that, and testimony jointly; and if testimony be allowed on one part, it ought also to be admitted on the other, granting that there is no impossibility

impossibility in the fact attested. But the laws by which the Deity governs the universe can, at best, only be inferred from the *whole* series of his dispensations from the beginning of the world; testimony must therefore necessarily be admitted in establishing these laws. Now our author, in deducing the laws of nature, rejects all well authenticated miraculous events, granted to be possible, and therefore not altogether incredible and to be rejected without examination, and thence establishes a law to prove against their credibility; but the proof of a position ought to proceed upon principles which are totally independent of any supposition of its being either true or false. His conclusion therefore is not deduced by just reasoning from acknowledged principles, but it is a necessary consequence of his own arbitrary supposition. " 'Tis a miracle," says he, " that a dead man should come to life, because that has never been observed in any age or country." Now testimony, confirmed by every proof which can tend to establish a true matter of fact, asserts that such an event, has happened. But our author argues against the credibility of this, because it is contrary to the laws of nature; and in establishing these laws, he rejects all such extraordinary facts, although they are authenticated by all the evidence which such facts can possibly admit of; taking thereby into consideration, events of that kind only which have fallen within the sphere of his own observations, as if the whole series of God's dispensations were necessarily included in the course of a few years. But who shall thus circumscribe the operations of divine power and infinite wisdom, and say, " Hitherto shalt thou go, and no further." Before he rejected circumstances of this kind in establishing the laws of nature, he should, at least, have shewn, that we have *not all* that evidence for them which we might have had, upon supposition that they were true; he should also have shewn, in a moral point of view, that the events were inconsistent with the ordinary operations of Providence; and that there was no end to justify the means. Whereas, on the contrary, there *is all* the evidence for them which a real matter of fact can possibly have; they are perfectly consistent with all the moral dispensations of Providence; and at the same time that the resurrection of Jesus Christ is most unexceptionably attested, we discover a moral intention in the miracle, which very satisfactorily accounts for that exertion of divine power.

In one part of the sermon, Mr. Vince confounds what Hume had particularly distinguished; he says, ' a tree springing up from a seed which is buried in the earth is equally unaccountable and astonishing, as that of a man being raised from the dead.' This is a verbal sophism; a tree springing up from a seed is an event which we frequently see and expect; a man raised from the dead we never saw, and it would therefore be contrary to experience; the *mode* by which a tree springs from a seed is unaccountable, but the *fact* itself is not miraculous; it would be a miraculous event if a tree were suddenly to contract itself and be again involved in a seed; for this event would

would be directly contrary to the usual and observed operations of nature.

These sermons are however entitled to notice by the clear manner in which the arguments are stated, and by their ingenuity and theological acuteness.

ART. V. *An Introduction to the Literary History of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries.* 8vo. pp. 272. 5s. Boards. Cadell, jun. and Davies. 1798.

IT has been said of the professed copyists of Michael Angelo, that few, if any, have been successful; since that which they intended to be grand and sublime proved to be only preposterous or fantastic:—they found it easy to depart from what was common and natural, but were unable to reach the heights of excentric greatness. A fate somewhat similar has attended the imitators of Johnson and Gibbon. From these writers, the English language received a prodigious augmentation of force and dignity: but, as great virtues sometimes border very nearly on great vices, so the excellencies of Johnson and Gibbon are scarcely separable from very culpable defects. Johnson was able to “endow his purposes with words;” and the natural dignity of his ideas was suitable to the magnificence of the phraseology with which he clothed them: but his imitators have not unfrequently swaddled infantine and puny conceptions in gorgeous apparel; and, with the semblance of sense, have written what Addison calls “most elaborate and refined nonsense.” Like the bow of Ulysses, the language of Johnson is only formidable in the hands of its master.

It may easily be conjectured that these observations augur unfavourably to the author of the present treatise. He appears indeed to have imitated the style of Gibbon, and to have shared the general fate of imitators. Yet we have pleasure in saying that the style is the most objectionable part of the work: for we have frequently found, during the perusal of it, proofs of a mind stored with knowledge, and capable of thinking and judging correctly. Previously, however, to any specific examination of the performance, we deem it proper to lay before our readers the author's own account of its nature, plan, and the proposed manner of its execution:

‘On turning his thoughts to the *manner* in which such a work might be written to render it useful and interesting, three modes occurred with different degrees of facility and merit. 1. The first is chalked out by Johnson, who, according to his biographer Boswell, would have “a history of the revival of learning contain an account of *whatever* contributed to the restoration of literature, such as controversies, printing, the destruction of the Greek empire, the encouragement

couragement of great men, with the lives of the most eminent patrons and professors of all kinds of learning in different countries." This is a plan on a large scale, like the powers of its framer, and may perhaps remind the critical reader of Bacon's noble outline of a general history of learning, the most perfect scholar could devise; but which no scholar can hope to complete.

2. Inferior in merit, and easier in execution, seems the design which should select and arrange the more striking parts of literary history on its revival, record and illustrate those material causes by which its progress was obviously affected, exhibit those pre-eminent characters, whether of patrons or scholars, who most filled the public eye, and connect the literary with the political and general history of the period. Such a performance, while it carries with it considerable splendour and a permanent interest, offers no insurmountable difficulties to the scholar who has books to read, judgment to digest, and talents to compose.

3. But as the present age is not remarkable for literary labour, perhaps a method of subordinate consequence, and a more practicable nature, may be viewed with greater complacency—a general and rapid outline—such a cursory, yet not indistinct, review of the revival of literature, as no laborious perusal of the most popular authors might suggest, and which might hope to satisfy learning, while it instructed ignorance and gratified curiosity. In other words, a hasty passage over this charming but undescribed country, in which the traveller would seize and exhibit the most interesting scenes, without aspiring to the accuracy of the topographer, the acuteness of the critic, and the dignity of the historian: a work strictly compendious, yet excluding no attractions of style, and which, though meant to instruct and inform, might be adapted to every comprehension, and find a friend in every reader.'—

In the first part of this tract, he has endeavoured to give a short historical and critical sketch of the decline of learning in the Roman empire, and followed it to a period when its spirit subsided, and its very existence may be reasonably questioned. Need he say he means the tenth century? Three short chapters are employed in this discussion, which if it should not be deemed indispensably necessary to an introduction like the present, was yet too important to be wholly omitted, though there was little prospect of doing it justice.

In the second part he has entered on a more difficult task, and attempted at some length to explain and illustrate the principal causes to which in his opinion the re-appearance of learning may be properly attributed, its dawn in the eleventh, and an increasing radiance in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. For this seems the proper place to observe, that learning, however defined, the sciences, and in some respects the arts, had re-appeared before the age of Dante, Petrarch, and Boccace. To them we owe the introduction of classical studies, the first happy imitation of the Roman authors, and what was yet more important, the first successful cultivation of their vernacular tongue. Nor will it be denied that their age was marked by a corresponding progress of rapidity and success in the polite arts. It is this splendid assemblage of merit which has caused theirs to be considered

sidered as the exclusive period of reviving letters, though with considerable injustice to the two preceding centuries. This distinction the author flatters himself is just and accurate, and with those who look beyond the surface, who are aware of the *impossibility* of the instant reproduction of learning, will detract little from the splendour and value of that memorable period. It has too much solid and intrinsic property to shrink from the payment of just demands and equitable claims.—To have revived classical and polite composition is splendid praise.

‘ These causes will admit of a commodious division.—1. The Arabian settlements in Europe, and their literary and scientific communications.—2. The Crusades in their effects on the manners, learning, romance, and poetry.—3. The introduction of the Roman civil law, together with the canon law, into our universities, schools, and tribunals.

‘ The third and last part is designed to exhibit a view of the progress of learning thus assisted and advanced, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Hence one chapter is dedicated to a statement of those political events, to which a literary influence may be properly ascribed, to an account of the patronage of the great, the establishment of universities, and the travels of scholars. The remaining one offers a sketch of the actual state of learning during that period, but more particularly at its close, under its general branches and divisions. In this attempt the clear and perspicuous method of Tiraboschi is adopted, and with it much of his various and well-digested knowledge. Perhaps it would be difficult to suggest a better mode for arranging and discussing the abundant materials of the two next centuries.

‘ Such are the subjects of the present discussion, important in themselves, and leading by a natural progress to the threshold of a greater undertaking. No one is more sensible of their importance than the author, no one wishes more sincerely they had received an accurate and masterly investigation. But standing here in the light of preliminary considerations only, he has availed himself of a liberty authorised by such a supposition, has avoided the formality of citation and the parade of notes, and reviewed them rather as an observer and an essayist than as a critic and historian. Not that he is inclined to shrink from the acknowledgment of his obligations. He has perused or consulted several of the best authors, from whose labours he has derived much useful assistance, and is particularly indebted to the French Benedictine history, Tiraboschi, and D’Herbelot. May he be permitted to add, that he believes there is no fact or opinion mentioned, and hardly an illustration offered, for which, if necessary, an authority or a reason might not be assigned?

‘ With these explanations the author flatters himself he may venture to submit this imperfect essay to the public notice, and hopes it will be considered, agreeably to his idea and expectation, as an enlarged and not unuseful Preface to a Literary History of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries.’

It has been objected against Gibbon, by the most profound scholar not only of this age but perhaps of every other, that he

he speaks too frequently in the obscure language of hint and allusion. Truth seldom comes forwards in his pages, boldly, naked, and unadorned, but slides in slyly and veiled. This, however, is to be tolerated in a work so abundant in information as that of Gibbon; because, from the context and previous narrative, we are always able to ascertain the truth, such at least as it appeared to the author, without reference to other books:—but, in a work intended as a sketch or epitome, it is surely desirable to have the information stated as clearly and intelligibly as it is possible; the language of hint, allusion, and insinuation, in its most proper application still needing a defence, here deserves to have summary justice inflicted on it; it is an intellectual crime at which every sane mind revolts. The present work, if we consider its use, must be intended for readers who are unacquainted with the histories of the 14th and 15th centuries; can it, then, be charged with a greater fault, than that of wrapping up its information in *allusions* to the events of those periods? If the transactions of those times be known, the allusions may be understood: but, if they be not known, what is the use of this work? Let it be seen whether we unfairly give its character:—

‘For two hundred years was Italy doomed to this state of intellectual and moral depression, till the arms of Charlemagne before the close of the eighth century gave it a generous master, and founded the new empire of the west. Rome, it is true, had escaped the Lombard dominion; but the horrors of a perpetual siege can alone convey an adequate idea of its distressed situation. In casting our eye back through the whole of this disastrous period, Gregory seems the only man who deserves, I will not say, the epithet of Great, but who can claim any notice for force of mind or vigour of intellect, for the possession of any learning or the display of any genius. In the bold and masculine outline of his character all pencils agree; yet so imperfectly and confusedly are the transactions of his age recorded, that it is to this day a doubt with some inquirers, whether the sciences, with the exception of theology, did not find in him a determined enemy; whether he did not persecute classical learning and interdict its study; whether with more than Gothic fury he did not destroy the valuable libraries of antiquity, and level with the ground the most splendid monuments of Roman art. In this doubt or dispute, it is safer and wiser to adopt the neutrality of Bayle, than to contend with the historian of Italian literature*, or the author of the history of philosophy†.’

Again; speaking of the religion of the tenth century, the author says:

‘To perform a part in their splendid drama demanded close observance and long experience. The knowledge of church music

* Tiraboschi.

† Brucker.

became an important acquisition and the honourable reward of ten years vigils. The Gregorian chant, with dignity and fullness, had brought difficulty; and the invention of Guy d'Arezzo was yet wanting to smile on the choir, and smooth the road to musical eminence.'

'The Gregorian chant' will indeed bring difficulty to most readers, and to all readers for whom the work is intended; and the invention of meaning in the passage will puzzle them as much as the 'Invention of Guy d'Arezzo.'

Again; speaking of the Caliph Almamon, the author says, 'That distinguished generosity which, out of thirty thousand pieces of gold, could distribute four and twenty to surrounding friends, before his foot was withdrawn from the stirrup, was soon particularly directed to the advancement of learning.' Now, if a person has read the history of the Caliphs, Gibbon's history, or a few such small works, he may recollect the story, and understand the allusion here made to it.

Without any previous or subsequent notice, Anna Comnena is thus introduced:

'The family on the throne were not merely eminent patrons of learning, but might be numbered amongst its professors; and though the appearance of Anna Comnena at the bar of criticism may perhaps have softened its verdict, posterity has sympathised with the daughter and applauded the historian.'

These specimens may suffice to justify our remarks concerning the obscurity of allusion adopted by the author. One or two short extracts shall now be given, to shew that Gibbon's style has been affected in the present work; how successfully, our readers may judge.

'Written composition, it is true, was last affected by this misfortune; but these barbaric infusions are strongly marked in the literary productions of the time. The progress of undulation extended at last from the centre to the extremest shore, and the scholar was affected as well as the peasant, the soldier, and the citizen.'

'The second Caliph of the house of Abassides, Abou Giafar Almamon, seems to take the lead in the patronage of learning and the sciences. Amidst several insurrections, many splendid conquests, much cruelty and much avarice, he found time, taste, and money for a liberal encouragement of the arts, and founded a metropolis unequalled for magnificence and population, which continued the seat of his descendants above five hundred years. Theology and astronomy, poetry and philosophy were there rivals without jealousy, and competitors without envy. His own reading lay principally in the Koran and the skies; the conscientious Iman could not be superficially acquainted with the former, and the astronomer was proved by the calculation of tables. But out of these favourite walks no one was more able or better disposed to judge and reward every exertion of genius. He left his successor an immense dominion, for his valour had extended the Arabian empire over Armenia, Cilicia, and Cappadocia

Cappadocia, a treasure of thirty millions sterling, and subjects known to be brave and willing to be wise.'

The following passage we do not give as an imitation of any author with whom we are acquainted: 'A prince of the latter house, escaping from the bloody massacre of his family, displayed the standard of revolt in Spain; submission had been death, escape next to impossibility, and an independent crown was the stake he swept in this desperate game.'

Most of the faults of the present work are to be ascribed to the want of a correct taste; knowledge we believe the writer to possess. Many of the metaphors are false, and the images incongruous; we read of 'inroads ripening into extensive and permanent invasions;'—'of a portrait describing with a flattering pencil,' &c.

Our criticism, however, will appear malicious if we continue our extracts; they shall therefore be terminated by a passage which cost us some trouble to comprehend: 'Within the thirteenth century, no less than a hundred professors read lectures at Bologna; which, allowing to each of these literary monarchs a reign of eight years, will exhibit the cotemporary labours and rivalry of twelve.' This we regard as a verbal and arithmetical riddle, and we rather pride ourselves on having discovered its meaning.

We regret to see time and learning unprofitably employed. The style of this work is such that we could not approve it under any circumstances: but in the present instance it merits especial censure, as it defeats the only proper end for which this 'Introduction' could have been intended.

ART. VI. *Physico-Theology: or, a Demonstration of the Being and Attributes of God, from his Works of Creation.* Being the Substance of Sixteen Discourses delivered in St. Mary-le-Bow Church, London, at the Hon. Mr. Boyle's Lectures, in the Years 1711 and 1712. By the Rev. W. Derham, Canon of Windsor, Rector of Upminster in Essex, and F. R. S. A new Edition; with additional Notes; a Translation of the Latin and Greek Quotations; and a Life of the Author. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 360 and 446. With Plates. 14s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1798.

THE necessity which produced the present edition, and the alterations and improvements made by the editor, will be best understood from his own words:

'The sole motive to this undertaking, on the part of the editor, was an earnest desire to extend the benefit and utility of this admirable work to all classes of readers, by opening to their view, what is in reality the most interesting as well as amusing part of the book,

those copious stores of physical knowledge, the facts and observations contained in the notes to this work. Separated indeed from the notes, the text of the *Physico-Theology* is nothing else than a detail of doctrines without their proofs; which the reader must content himself with receiving on the bare authority of their announcer. This, however, was by no means the intention of the author; for in reality he has supported every observation which he advances in the text, by ample proofs and illustrations contained in the notes. As these, however, consist in great part of quotations from Latin and Greek authors, the unlearned reader is totally excluded from all the benefit of the proofs and illustrations drawn from their works. It appeared therefore to the editor, that a faithful translation of those quotations in the learned languages could not fail to be acceptable, not only to such readers as are entirely ignorant of those languages, but even to those who, though moderately skilled in them, are not versant in the technical and scientific phraseology used by the Latin and Greek writers. Another obvious mean of extending the utility of this excellent work was, to subjoin a short notice of all the most important discoveries that have been made in Physics since the time of Mr. Derham; as well as of such curious facts as have recently come to knowledge, and which tend to confirm the chief doctrines, or to throw additional light on the principal topics of the author's inquiry. This therefore the editor has attempted in the additional notes, which are pretty numerous and ample; and he has likewise supplied what was confessedly a most material want in all former editions, several plates, to illustrate those subjects which are imperfectly understood by verbal description alone. If in all, or in any of these respects, this new edition of the *Physico-Theology* shall be deemed worthy of the attention of the public, the editor is well rewarded, in the pleasing consciousness of having contributed his aid to the advancement of those noble purposes of its pious author, who,

— to the height of this great argument,
Sought to assert Eternal Providence,
And justify the ways of God to man!

The life of Derham, prefixed to the present work, is rather a critique on his writings, and a justification of the philosophy of final causes, than a narration of incidents, sentiments, remarks, and conversation. The incidents which occurred in the life of this worthy man, we readily conceive, may have been few and uninteresting, since an uniformity mostly pervades the lives of scholars and philosophers; "*fabula unius diei continet vitam*:" but the sentiments, remarks, conversation, &c. of so distinguished a character, we would gladly have known from his biographer.

To ransack written records, such as were known at the time of Derham, for knowledge and illustration on the subjects of the *Physico-Theology*, after the patient, laborious, and well directed inquiries of its author, would be a waste of time: but the

the discoveries and improvements which have been made in late years, in every part of physical science, offer a copious supply of matter, of which the editor has not thoroughly availed himself*. The defence of the philosophy of final causes we could well have excused; the zeal and intention of the editor are more meritorious than the skill and force of his augmentation.

Although custom, and the rigorous laws which we have imposed on ourselves, forbid us to examine critically the present work, yet we cannot dismiss it with frigid indifference; nor without indulging in a retrospect of reverential regard for its original author, on account of his unwearied labours, his zeal in promoting what he believed to be the truth, the fervour of his piety, and the copiousness of his acquirements. He was one of those who sought in knowledge (to use the grand language of Bacon) "not a couch whereon to rest a searching spirit, nor a terrass for a wandering and variable mind, to walk up and down with a fair prospect; nor a fort and commanding ground for strife and contention; nor a shop for profit or sale, but a rich store-house for the glory of the Creator and the relief of man's estate."

It is true that his work contains errors: but they are the errors of the times rather than of the man; and we know better, not so much because we are wiser, as because we live later. If his book be not without defects, it abounds with stores of knowledge rich and plenteous; and whoever is disposed to blame the unphilosophical use which the author made of them, may employ them, if he can, to purposes of greater profit. Many errors we know have been inveterate; and what the world has long thought to be true is not necessarily so; yet we presume to say that the present work possesses intrinsic merit, since it has grown in reputation under so many variations of opinion, caprices of taste, and vicissitudes of philosophy.

ART. VII. *Poems*, by Robert Southey. Vol. II. Small 8vo. pp. 232. 5s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1799.

THE former volume of this author's poems was criticized in our *xxiiid* vol. p. 297. We then gave to the ingenious writer the praises which were due to him, mixed with a friendly admonition to exercise his judgment more severely in the selection as well as in the finishing of his pieces. It would have

* The editor has not translated *all* the Latin quotations; for instance, a passage from Pliny, p. 58. vol. ii.

been well, had such discrimination been more exerted in the present volume. When we perceive a man of real talents dissipating his powers in the composition of verses which are trivial both in thought and expression, it is incumbent on us to point out his mistake, and direct his efforts towards the path to true celebrity. The maxim of Quintilian, on the subject of reading, is strictly applicable to the art of writing; and we may be allowed to say, "*præstat scribere multum quam multa.*" Mr. Southey may have been hitherto gratified by producing many verses which have been read: but he may find still greater satisfaction from producing a smaller number which shall be remembered, and quoted.

We express ourselves with the more freedom on this subject, because the defects of the poems before us do not arise from a want of genius, so much as from a false system adopted by the author. Seduced by the brilliant but dangerous eccentricities of Cowper, (whose poetry, like Seneca's prose, is full of agreeable faults *,) Mr. Southey has attempted to make the Muse descend a step lower, and has, in reality, brought her to the level of prose. To this error, he has joined an excessive fondness for obsolete phrases and turns of expression. Thus, instead of attempting to polish his strains, and to clothe his ideas in the most poetical garb which our language at present affords, his efforts are perpetually reverting to an imitation of the rudest productions of the last two centuries. To shew the propriety of these strictures, we shall print the following passages, without the measured distinction of the lines; and let our readers find out their poetry, if they can:

' O! it looks ill when delicate tongues disclaim old terms of kin,
Sirring and Madaming as civilly as if the road between the heart and
lips were such a weary and Laplandish way that the poor travellers
came to the red gates half frozen. Trust me Cousin Margaret, for
many a day my memory has played the creditor with me on your ac-
count, and made me shame to think that I should owe so long the
debt of kindness. But in truth, like Christian on his pilgrimage, I
bear so heavy a pack of business, that albeit I toil on mainly, in our
twelve hours race time leaves me distanced.' *Metrical Letter*, p. 85.

While Bunyan continues to be one of Mr. Southey's classics, we must not expect strains very superior to these.

The Vision of the Maid of Orleans, originally printed as the 9th book of "Joan of Arc," and now adapted to the improved edition of that poem, is the first in this collection. An account of it will be found in our sixth vol. N. S. p. 366; and we shall only now observe that, in the course of this long vision, Mr. Southey's turn for the ludicrous has led him to in-

* *Abundat dulcibus vitiiis.* Quintil.

termix several passages, (especially in p. 39.) which very disagreeably break the serious tone and character of the piece. If the example of Milton, in his description of *Limbo*, should be quoted to support this inconsistency, we can only express our wish that Mr. Southey had imitated the better part of our incomparable poet.—Powers of versification and imagery, however, are displayed in this poem, which convince us that Mr. Southey might take a higher station on Parnassus, if he would submit to the requisite labour. In no art is it more true than in that of poetry, that

“ Long, long labours wait the glorious prize;”
and of all those Herculean tasks, that of *blotting* is the most difficult.

The Rose. This is a legendary tale of the origin of the Rose, from Sir John Maundeville, of lying memory. Why Mr. Southey should have preferred it to the charming fictions of antient mythology, on the same subject, we cannot imagine.

The Complaints of the Poor. This prosaic ballad represents some cases in which the poor have an undoubted right to complain, and in which their petitions have never, surely, been rejected. This country, at the present period, may justly challenge any state of society, with the proceedings of which we are acquainted, on the score of attention to the indigent. The imagination of the most daring projector has not, perhaps, kept pace with the active though silent benevolence exerted at this moment by opulent individuals; and therefore the imputation of apathy for the sufferings of others never could be more undeservedly applied than at present.

The Metrical Letter we have already shewn to be mere prose; we hope that “Cousin Margaret” will excuse us, for having made this slight deduction from the compliment which this epistle was intended to convey.

The Cross Roads. ‘There was an old man breaking stones to mend the turnpike way, he sat him down beside a brook and out his bread and cheese he took, for now it was mid-day.’ This is the first stanza of the ballad, faithfully printed, excepting the metrical form of the lines. Is this poetry, gentle reader?

The Sailor who had served in the Slave Trade. That the reader may be convinced of the justness of our remarks on the defects of Mr. Southey’s familiar pieces, we shall present him with this at full length:

‘In September, 1798, a Dissenting Minister of Bristol discovered a Sailor in the neighbourhood of that city, groaning and praying in a hovel. The circumstance that occasioned his agony of mind is detailed

tailed in the annexed Ballad, without the slightest addition or alteration. By presenting it as a Poem, the story is made more public, and such stories ought to be made as public as possible.

- ‘ He stopt,—it surely was a groan
That from the hovel came!
He stopt and listened anxiously,
Again it sounds the same.
- ‘ It surely from the hovel comes!
And now he hastens there,
And thence he hears the name of Christ
Amidst a broken prayer.
- ‘ He entered in the hovel now,
A sailor there he sees,
His hands were lifted up to Heaven
And he was on his knees.
- ‘ Nor did the Sailor so intent
His entering footsteps heed,
But now the Lord’s prayer said, and now
His half-forgotten creed.
- ‘ And often on his Saviour call’d
With many a bitter groan,
In such heart-anguish as could spring
From deepest guilt alone.
- ‘ He ask’d the miserable man
Why he was kneeling there,
And what the crime had been that caus’d
The anguish of his prayer.
- ‘ Oh I have done a wicked thing!
It haunts me night and day,
And I have sought this lonely place
Here undisturb’d to pray.
- ‘ I have no place to pray on board
So I came here alone,
That I might freely kneel and pray,
And call on Christ and groan.
- ‘ If to the main-mast head I go,
The wicked one is there,
From place to place, from rope to rope,
He follows every where.
- ‘ I shut my eyes,—it matters not—
Still still the same I see,—
And when I lie me down at night
’Tis always day with me.
- ‘ He follows follows every where,
And every place is Hell!
O God—and I must go with him
In endless fire to dwell.

‘ He

- He follows follows every where,
He's still above—below,
Oh tell me where to fly from him!
Oh tell me where to go!
- But tell me, quoth the Stranger then,
What this thy crime hath been,
So haply I may comfort give
To one that grieves for sin.
- O I have done a cursed deed
The wretched man replies,
And night and day and every where
'Tis still before my eyes.
- I sail'd on board a Guinea-man
And to the slave-coast went;
Would that the sea had swallowed me
When I was innocent!
- And we took in our cargo there,
Three hundred negroe slaves,
And we sail'd homeward merrily
Over the ocean waves.
- But some were sulky of the slaves
And would not touch their meat,
So therefore we were forced by threats
And blows to make them eat.
- One woman sulkier than the rest
Would still refuse her food—
O Jesus God! I hear her cries—
I see her in her blood!
- The Captain made me tie her up
And flog while he stood by,
And then he curs'd me if I staid
My hand to hear her cry.
- She groan'd, she shriek'd—I could not spare
For the Captain he stood by—
Dear God! that I might rest one night
From that poor woman's cry!
- She twisted from the blows—her blood
Her mangled flesh I see—
And still the Captain would not spare—
O he was worse than me!
- She could not be more glad than I
When she was taken down,
A blessed minute—'twas the last
That I have ever known!
- I did not close my eyes all night,
Thinking what I had done;
I heard her groans and they grew faint
About the rising sun.

• She

- ‘ She groan’d and groan’d, but her groans grew
Fainter at morning tide,
Fainter and fainter still they came
Till at the noon she died.
- ‘ They sung her overboard ;—poor wretch
She rested from her pain,—
But when—O Christ! O blessed God!
Shall I have rest again!
- ‘ I saw the sea close over her,
Yet she was still in sight;
I see her twisting every where;
I see her day and night.
- ‘ Go where I will, do what I can
The wicked one I see—
Dear Christ have mercy on my soul,
O God deliver me!
- ‘ To-morrow I set sail again
Not to the Negroe shore—
Wretch that I am I will at least
Commit that sin no more.
- ‘ O give me comfort if you can—
Oh tell me where to fly—
And bid me hope, if there be hope,
For one so lost as I.
- ‘ Poor wretch, the stranger he replied
Put thou thy trust in heaven,
And call on him for whose dear sake
All sins shall be forgiven.
- ‘ This night at least is thine, go thou
And seek the house of prayer,
There shalt thou hear the word of God
And he will help thee there!’

Jasper is a production in a similar strain, which we would recommend to the *Cheap Repository*; since the moral is excellent, and the versification is well adapted to the taste of the lower classes of society.

Lord William is a ghost-story, very proper to frighten little children.

A Ballad, shewing how an old Woman rode double, and who rode before her. This ballad is founded on a silly monkish legend, which has been retailed in many books of demonology. We should have had no objection to let the devil carry away the verses with the old lady.

The Surgeon's Warning. This is a parody on the preceding verses,

“ If verse that can be called, which verse had none,”
(to alter a line of Milton); and we presume that this imitation furnishes an explanation of those ambiguous things which
puzzled

puzzled us so much in reviewing the *Annual Anthology**. We do not hesitate to remark that it is a proof of bad taste, when an author undertakes to burlesque his own favourite manner of writing. The homely proverb says, *It is a sad bird that besouls its own nest*;—Mr. S. is so fond of black-letter wit, that we do not apprehend that we shall excite his resentment by this *metre* quotation.

The Victory. This short piece recalls the feelings from exultation on the tidings of naval victory, to pity for the fate of an impressed seaman, who fell in the action.

Henry the Hermit. One of those legendary tales which seem to have captivated Mr. Southey's fancy, to the exclusion of better models.

English Eclogues. Here we meet again with prose mistaken for verse. Witness the opening of the second, which we shall extract without altering a single word; only avoiding the poetical form of printing:

'*Jane*. Harry! I'm tired of playing. We'll draw round the fire, and Grandmamma perhaps will tell us one of her stories.

'*Harry*. Aye—dear Grandmamma! a pretty story! something dismal now; a bloody murder.

'*Jane*. Or about a ghost.

'*Grandmother*. Nay, nay, I should but frighten you. You know the other night when I was telling you about the light in the church-yard, how you trembled because the screech-owl hooted at the window, and would not go to bed.

'*Jane*. Why Grandmamma you said yourself you did not like to hear him. Pray now! we won't be frightened.

'*Grandmother*. Well, well, children! But you've heard all my stories. Let me see—did I never tell you how the smuggler murdered the woman down at Pill?

'*Harry*. No—never! never!

'*Grandmother*. Not how he cut her head off in the stable?

'*Harry*. Oh—now! do tell us that!

Is it possible that the good old woman could mistake this gossiping for poetry? Of similar stuff are the rest of the eclogues composed. Our criticisms, divided into lines of equal length, would be nearly as poetical as these compositions.

If we have mentioned some of this author's performances in terms of disapprobation, we must desire the reader to recollect our declaration that we conceive him to have misdirected considerable talents; and we design him a real kindness, in shewing him his error. Let Mr. Southey look up to the classic models, instead of the monkish trash which he has studied, and he will find reason for congratulating himself on his change of objects.

* An account of this work has been some time prepared, but we have not yet been able to insert it.

ART. VIII. *Memoirs of the Medical Society of London, instituted in the Year 1773.* Vol. V. 8vo. pp. 476. 9s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1799.

THIS society has furnished the public with many valuable papers, and we are glad to observe that it continues its exertions with vigour. The fourth volume of its collections was noticed in the M. R. vol. xviii. N. S. p. 393. We shall examine separately every article which composes the present volume.

History of a Case of Hydrophobia. By William Gaitskell, Surgeon.—There is nothing peculiar in this Case, which terminated fatally on the sixth day from the appearance of the dread of water. Oil was used, according to Dr. Shadwell's method, without success. The body was not opened.

Funesta Passionis Iliacæ Historia; partiumque morbosarum post mortem Anatomia. Wickens Hodges, Chirurgo, Auctore.—A prolix account of a case of iliac passion, which was not attended with any unusual symptom. After death, a considerable stricture was found in the lower part of the colon, (we suppose in the sigmoid flexure,) and part of the rectum. The jejunum was in a gangrenous state.

Case of Polypus Uteri.—This disease was erroneously supposed, during the patient's life, to be an inversion of the uterus. The candour with which the case is stated does great credit to the anonymous writer.

Of certain Morbid Affections of the Uterus. By J. C. Lettsom, M. D. &c.—Dr. Lettsom condemns the use of tonic remedies, in chronic inflammation, and in scirrhus of the uterus. The repeated application of leeches, above the os pubis, or to the perinæum; the use of gentle laxatives, of opium in glysters, injections into the vagina, external fomentations, and blisters to the lower part of the abdomen, are recommended, as the most probable means of procuring relief; and, in the early stages, of effecting a cure.

Case of Hematocoele, with an Account of the Efficacy of the Zanthoxylon. By John Harris, M. D. C. M. S. Kingston, Jamaica.—From this case, and from some facts mentioned in an appendix, by Mr. Chamberlaine, it appears that the powdered bark of the root of the yellow prickly wood, or zanthoxylon*, of Jamaica, has been successfully used as an external application to old ulcers, and ill-conditioned wounds.

On the Efficacy of the Zanthoxylon. By Thomas Heney, M. D. of St. David's, Jamaica.—This paper contains a confirmation of the preceding remarks, and an account of the narcotic and

* This word should be written Xanthoxylon. Rev.

antispasmodic effects of this bark, in cases of the *Colica Pictonum*, and of Epilepsy.

Case of diseased Kidnies, and Stone in the Bladder. By Thomas Erratt, Surgeon.—In this fatal instance, a hard substance, which was felt through the integuments as the patient lay in a horizontal posture, proved on dissection to be a stone of considerable size, firmly bedded in a portion of the bladder, at the fundus.

On the Application of Spirit of Wine to Burns, Scalds, &c. By Thomas Parkinson, Surgeon, at Leicester.—After the facts which have been published, to shew the efficacy of caustic volatile aleali and spirit of turpentine, in accidents of this nature, the reader will observe little novelty in the practice here recommended.

An Account of the Lithontriptic Power observed in the Muriatic Acid. By Mr. Copland.—Large doses of the muriatic acid were given by Mr. Copland, in complaints which were supposed to depend on the presence of stone in the bladder; and he thinks with advantage. The four cases recited do not appear conclusive, because the existence of calculus was not ascertained in any of them, and the relief obtained was not very remarkable. In our opinion, the facts prove nothing more than the efficacy of a powerful tonic, in nephritic cases; and this is a point so well understood, that it scarcely required any fresh elucidation. Many stomachs, we apprehend, would not bear this acid, in the quantities here directed.

Experiments on the external Use of Tartarized Antimony. By Mr. Hutchinson.—The sensible effects produced by this practice were increased perspiration, and a strong disposition to sleep, with an augmentation of the quantity of urine. Mr. H. used this method with success, in an obstinate ague; and in chronic rheumatism. The quantity rubbed in was from fifteen grains to a scruple, nightly.

Some Account of a Species of Phthisis Pulmonalis, peculiar to Persons employed in pointing Needles in the Needle Manufacture. By John Johnstone, M. D. Worcester, C. M. S.—Dr. Johnstone informs us that persons employed in pointing the needles, by dry-grinding them, are quickly affected with pulmonary complaints, such as cough, and purulent or bloody expectoration; and that they scarcely ever attain the age of forty years. The fatal consequences of this employment, it appears, are so well known, that it is difficult to procure workmen for it; their wages are consequently high, and their intemperance is great; they also chew a great quantity of tobacco, and wet their hands and needles, as they become overheated by attrition, with a discharge of saliva.

This is a melancholy detail of the mortality produced by a necessary manufacture; and if it can be prevented, by the easy method which Dr. Johnstone suggests, the public will have great reason to thank him for his attention. He proposes that the needle-grinders should have a vessel near them, filled with cold water, into which they may occasionally dip their hands, and cool the metal; by which mode the enormous waste of saliva would be avoided;—and to secure the lungs from the irritation occasioned by the small particles of iron and stone, perpetually detached during the operation, Dr. J. recommends that the head should be enveloped in gauze or crape.

On the Poison of Fish. By Edward Thomas, M. D.—This is a very interesting memoir; and though it does not furnish us with a complete solution of the questions relating to this curious discussion, it certainly extends our knowledge, in many important particulars. Dr. Thomas supposes that the poisonous quality, occasionally observed in some kinds of fish, arises from their food. Thus the land-crab, he observes, is found at one time safe, at another poisonous, from feeding on the bark or leaves of the manchineel tree. If fish be gutted and salted, immediately on being taken off the hook, they seldom or never create any disorder. The entrails thus taken out are observed to be poisonous to animals: of which fact, several conclusive instances are mentioned. Fish are also more poisonous at particular periods of the year than at others. All species of fish are not poisonous; those most to be dreaded are the barracuta, yellow-bill sprat, cavallee, rock-fish, king-fish, smooth-bottle-fish, and lobster. Some very useful information respecting each is here afforded.

The usual symptoms of fish-poison, we are told, are cardialgia, nausea, severe vomiting and purging, tormina, cold sweats, fainting, and sometimes vertigo: the face is flushed, and the eyes are inflamed, in some, with a burning sensation of heat. These feelings are accompanied with an efflorescence, and a prickling in the hands and nose when immersed in cold water, which are reckoned diagnostics of fish-poison. These are the symptoms which appear in those who are *musselled*, as we term it, in this country; dysuria and tenesmus often accompany them, in the West-Indies; and these phenomena are succeeded by acute pain and swelling in the knees, wrists, and ankles, which return, at intervals, years after the attack.

Emetics and purgatives are directed to be given in the first instance; afterward, diaphoretics; and the author particularly recommends Dover's powder.

It is added in a note that Dr. Clarke, of Dominica, has mentioned Capsicum (Cayenne Pepper) as an effectual antidote against the fish-poison.

Case of Deposition of Mercury on the Bones. By Francis Rigby Brodbelt.—This case leads to no particular conclusion. It is admitted, we believe, that persons who work in quicksilver-mines have been found, on dissection, to have undergone similar depositions of the mineral on the bones, or in the cavities of the bones of the cranium, without any remarkable alteration of their general health.

Observations on the Wigglesworth Water. By T. Garnett, M. D.—This is a sulphureous water, similar to that of Harrogate, but containing less saline matter.

Observations on the Nature and Virtues of the Harrogate Waters. By T. Garnett, M. D.—It is unnecessary to enter into the particulars of this short paper, as we have given an account of Dr. Garnett's treatise on this subject, in a former Review. Dr. G. found the sulphur-water successful in two cases of *Colica Pictorum*.

An Account of Experiments, performed with a View to ascertain the Effect of the Nitric Acid upon Iron, deposited in the Stomach of an Animal. By Edward Harrison, M. D. &c.—These experiments on dogs seem to prove that iron substances, accidentally swallowed, may be safely dissolved by the cautious administration of proper acids. We remember to have observed considerable disturbance excited by the use of vinegar, in a patient who had swallowed a large piece of copper. It will therefore be necessary to point out the particular cases, in which this practice may be adopted.

Case of Iron Nails dissolved in the Human Stomach, by means of the Nitric Acid, without any bad Consequences. By E. Harrison, M. D.—This is a very clear and satisfactory case, and certainly establishes the propriety of using the nitric acid to dissolve iron contained in the stomach and intestines.

Account of a Case of Scirrhus Pylorus. In a Letter from Dr. J. E. Harrison, of Philadelphia.—This case furnishes no practical inference.

Case of a Fistula in Ano, from an uncommon cause. By E. Harrison, M. D.—The cause of ulceration in this case is supposed to have been the core of an apple, or pear.

The Cases of two Children who received the Small-pox by Inoculation, without previous Inflammation round the Incision; with a few Observations on that Disease. By Thomas Whately, Surgeon.—We observe nothing important in this communication.

Cases of Cynanche Trachealis, successfully treated; with Observations on that Disease. By Henry Field, Apothecary.—Nothing worth remarking occurs in this paper, excepting the author's belief in the contagious nature of the disease; an opinion which,

we fancy, is peculiar to himself;—and his timidity in the use of the lancet, in which we hope he is also singular.

Description of a particular Species of Erysipelas. By Thomas Walshman, F. M. S.—It appeared on the dissection of two patients, who died of this complaint, that the cause of death was an affection of the stomach, terminating in gangrene.

Case of inverted Uterus, with Retention of the Placenta after Parturition. By Tobias Browne, Surgeon-Accoucheur.—We shall give the principal circumstances of this case in the author's own words:

‘The child was dead, and in a very sphacelated state: after the fetal delivery some pain ensued, and, by a very slight effort to extract the secundines, the *funis* broke (it being also very putrid). The pains, however, not only continued, but became more excessive, with a degree of bearing down hardly to be conceived, and an actual inversion of the uterus, with the placenta completely adhering, took place. The dangerous state of the patient admitted of no delay; and having considered whether I should separate the placenta, and return the uterus, or reduce both together, on passing my finger round the placenta, finding it in no part detached from the uterus, I determined on returning them together, and happily succeeded.’

After five days, the placenta was discharged, and recovery took place.

Case of imperforate Rectum, and Obstruction in the Neck of the Bladder. By William Chamberlaine.—Mr. Chamberlaine had the satisfaction of succeeding in the removal of this distressing complication of evils, in an unfortunate infant.

An Account of the Effects of Ipecacuanha in the Cure of Dysentery, at Norfolk-Island. By W. Balmaine.—The use of ipecacuan, in small doses, for the cure of dysentery, is well understood among the practitioners of Europe: but the enormous doses recommended by Mr. Balmaine will probably astonish the boldest among them. He gives two drachms of the powder of ipecacuan, and sixty drops of laudanum, at one time. We shall quote his own words:

‘I did not now hesitate to follow this mode of practice, and gave the ipecacuanha frequently to the quantity of two drachms, with the addition of sixty drops of tinct. opii, and, in many cases, found that a dose or two was sufficient to remove every dangerous appearance, and that afterwards, by a due attention to the proper use of restoratives, the cure, in a number of instances, was completed.

‘I administered the medicine in various forms, and always observed it to answer the purpose best, when given in the form of pills, which were made as large as possible to admit of their being swallowed; and if the patient kept still, and lay on his back, with the head and chest tolerably elevated, nausea seldom or ever followed the taking of the medicine, and oftentimes it happened that he had not a stool the succeeding day, although, previously to taking the ipecacuanha,

peracuanha, the gripings were violent, and the discharge of blood frequent, and in large quantities.

On such practice, we cannot be expected to give a decisive opinion: but it is very fortunate that the dysentery of this country does not require such violent methods of treatment.

Case of Empyema. Communicated by Mr. Wastell.—This is a well-marked and well-described case of empyema successfully treated.

Effects of Arteriotomy in Cases of Epilepsy. By Anthony Fothergill, of Bath, M. D.—This paper contains only a short notice of the good effects resulting from opening the temporal artery, in two epileptic cases. How the operation was performed, we are not told.

Observations on Human intestinal Worms; being an Attempt at their Arrangement into Classes, Genera, and Species. By Robert Hooper, M. D.—The animals generated in the human intestines, though frequent objects of practice, have not been much regarded, in this country at least, as subjects of natural history. Dr. Hooper seems to have attended successfully to the task of arranging them; the execution of which may ultimately produce more accuracy in the description, and more certainty in the method of expelling the different genera. For the particulars of this memoir, we must refer to the book;—it is illustrated with coloured engravings.

Memoir on the Antivenereal Effects of several Acids, and other Remedies which have been lately proposed as Substitutes for Mercury, in the Cure of Syphilis. By Mr. Blair, Surgeon of the Lock Hospital, &c.—Mr. Blair here announces the failure of the acid of nitre, and of the oxygenated muriate of potash, in a great number of syphilitic cases. On this subject, it is our duty to record experience, as its results are offered to the public, without (as yet) interposing our own opinion.

Case of fatal Termination after the Bite of a mad Dog. By Mr. John Haynes, Surgeon, Chipping Norton.—In this case, excision of the bitten parts, performed four days only after the bite, failed in preventing the disease; though Mr. Haynes employed the proper means very judiciously, as soon as he saw the patient.

Case of the Bite of a Mad Dog. By Mr. Norris.—We shall extract from this narrative an account of the symptoms in the dog, which Mr. Norris had an opportunity of observing:

‘ Her look was downcast and sullen; her eyes, from which a clear fluid trickled, appeared heavy and languid, by no means red or inflamed; her tail was drawn between her legs; and she seemed to be extremely anxious and uneasy, frequently going to the length of her chain and lying down, then, in the course of a minute after, rising and changing her posture. Two or three times she went to some

water that had been placed near her, took a lap or two and then quitted it. Some bread being thrown to her, she chewed and swallowed it, but it was immediately after vomited, and she again swallowed and threw it up as before. During a quarter of an hour that I staid examining her appearance and motions, I observed that she, dunged three or four times, and immediately after swallowed, or attempted to swallow, the fæces, which were soft, whitish, and frothy.

The case related is that of a gentleman who was bitten by this dog, and who had his finger amputated, as a preventive, on the sixth day after the accident. He continued well.—A pig, which had been bitten by the same animal, a few days afterward, was attacked with symptoms of hydrophobia, and died.—Even although excision, at the distance of some days from the bite, should not prove an infallible remedy, it is surely always advisable; and we are glad to see this case brought forwards, to strengthen its recommendation.

History of an Empyema terminating fatally. By J. C. Lettsom, M. D. &c.—This is a particular detail of a case of empyema, in which paracentesis of the thorax was performed, with temporary relief; but a return of the symptoms brought on a fatal conclusion.

Extract of a Letter from Dr. Paterson, of Londonderry, dated July 26, 1793.—This letter describes a rheumatic disorder at Londonderry, in which the diaphragm seemed to partake of the inflammatory affection of the habit.

Case of an Ophthalmia cured by the Application of Oleum Terebinthina.—The inflammation in this case was chronic, and the cure was complete, after a very tedious previous duration of the illness.

An Obstruction of the Oesophagus removed by a Tobacco-glyster, on the third Day after the Accident. By Mr. Blair, Surgeon of the Lock Hospital.—A striking instance of the efficacy of the practice here recommended.

Case of a Child born with variolous Pustules. By Matthew Flinders, Surgeon, Donnington, Lincolnshire.—This case furnishes an additional proof, if any be wanting, that the foetus in utero is liable to receive variolous infection from the mother, and to undergo the disease before its birth.

On the Fever of Demerary. By — Beane, Surgeon in the Army.—The only remarkable part of these observations consists in the author's account of the effects of a mercurial course, in preventing and curing the yellow fever:

‘*Salivation from Mercury.*

‘ In the month of August the disease was so fatal, that to all the patients mercury was given. When salivation came on, they were perfectly

perfectly safe; I never knew a patient under salivation die. The doses were gr. iv. vel v.—ad ℥j. 3^{ia} quaque hora, of calomel in a bolus according to the urgency of the case; I have known a patient spitting within twenty-four hours. In some patients it did not produce salivation, but hemorrhagy from the mouth; it often would keep wavering about the mouth, shewing one day strong signs of an approaching salivation, which would be gone the following day; in such a state, if the patient ultimately died, he lived very many days longer than in the usual course of the disease.

Diarrhœa from Calomel.

‘ Sometimes the calomel was combined with opium, sometimes the opium was given occasionally, as diarrhœa required; but if it did produce purging, it was under the command of opium; unless allowed to go to very great excess. In general it produced no purging; I remember one case in which there was previously diarrhœa, and another in which there was an urgent diarrhœa, and also a vomiting; each of the patients took large doses of calomel; these symptoms gave way during its exhibition. In a lad, a remaining troublesome pain at the scrobiculus cordis, was gradually relieved after the commencement of the salivation.’

History of an Aneurism of the Aorta. By W. Hunter, Esq. Surgeon in the East Indies.—This interesting case is extremely well described; and the candour with which Mr. Hunter has conducted his remarks on it will command the respect of every reader, though little may be added to our knowledge of aneurisms by the recital.

Pathological Remarks upon various Kinds of Alienation of Mind. By James Sims, M. D. Pres. Med. Soc. &c.—This essay of the worthy President is rather desultory, and not altogether so clear in its explanations as we could wish. Dr. Sims’s definition of insanity, for instance, applies rather to singularity of manners than to mental derangement:

‘ Were I to hazard a definition, I should call it, the thinking, and therefore speaking and acting differently from the bulk of mankind, where that difference does not arise from superior knowledge, ignorance, or prejudice.’

The principal defect of this definition is that it does not imply a morbid state of the intellects.

Case of a Gun Breech penetrating the Cranium, and remaining within it two Months, previously to the Death of the Patient. By Mr. John Waldron, Surgeon, of Great Torrington, Devon.—The remarkable circumstance, which this case presents, is the length of time which intervened between the intrusion of the foreign substance, and the death of the sufferer.

Sketch of a Description of a Species of Scarlatina Anginosa, which occurred in the Autumn of 1798. By James Sims, M. D. &c.—From this paper, Dr. Sims appears to have entertained great

fears of the occurrence of a malignant epidemic, or 'some great pestilential disease;' which, however, has not taken place. The species of *Scarlatina Anginosa* here described is only the severe form of the disease, which physicians generally find curable by the exhibition of Peruvian bark, opiates, blisters, and wine; and in which we are surprized to observe that Dr. Sims can recommend nothing from his own experience. Our surprize is increased by a passage in p. 427, where the Doctor informs us that

'As to the bark, both in this disorder and in typhus, or any other fever, I think it seldom serviceable where the tongue and lips are dry and dark coloured, and the teeth covered with a black fur. Nay, where there has only been a dryness of these parts, I have sometimes seen the use of the bark speedily produce that black furring, which is ever so bad a sign, and which the common people denominate the black thrush.'

We believe that the ideas contained in this paragraph are inconsistent with the opinions and practice of the best physicians of the present time. On a subject of such immense importance to the lives of individuals, we cannot sacrifice any thing to false delicacy; and we must enter our protest, in the strongest manner, against Dr. Sims's opinions.

Physical Hints and Queries. By James Sims, M. D. &c.—This essay evinces an inquiring and active mind, but shews unacquaintance with the elementary parts of natural philosophy, and particularly with the new chemistry; which, whether destined to be permanent or not, cannot now be safely neglected by any philosophical inquirer.

History of a Case of Incysted Dropsy, with an Account of the Appearances on Dissection. By Sayer Walker, M. D. &c.—The cyst which was discovered, on the dissection of this patient, was composed of different layers, probably the effect of successive inflammations. Dr. Walker seems to think that life might have been prolonged by puncturing the abdomen, and giving free vent to the effused fluid.

The last paper, printed in an Appendix, relates a *Case of Caesarean Section*. By William Wood, Man-Midwife in Ordinary to the Lying-in Hospital in Manchester.—This operation, like all others of the same kind which have been performed in this country, was followed by the death of the patient. Mr. Wood, however, seems inclined to account for the fatal event by an adventitious circumstance, a gangrene of the *cervix uteri*, which he supposes to have been produced by the pressure of the child's head.

'From a review of the case, there is very great reason to suppose that the patient's death was not occasioned by the operation, but by the gangrene

gangrene that had taken place in the *cervix uteri*, which in my opinion must have been occasioned by the pressure of the child's head upon that part, prior to the operation; and I am induced to believe, had the operation been performed earlier, and at the patient's house, she would have stood a great chance of recovering.'

When we consider Mr. Wood's previous declaration, p. 472, that 'the *os uteri* and child's head appear to have been forced upon the right side of the pelvis, and to have remained considerably above the superior aperture, which prevented their being discovered upon an examination *per vaginam*,' we think that his supposition is very improbable, both from the situation of the parts, and the short period [twenty hours] during which the woman had been in labour. The nature of this operation sufficiently accounts for the death of the patients; and in this instance, there was a large extravasation of bloody serum, and some coagulated blood, in the cavity of the abdomen. Would not this appearance satisfy a dissector, as to the cause of death, in an accidental wound of the abdomen and uterus?

Having recently delivered our opinion on the impropriety of performing this operation, we shall not here resume the discussion of its merits. We are sincerely sorry that an additional proof of its fatality has been brought before the public.—The child, in this case, was extracted alive, and continued well when the report was written.

ART. IX. Mr. Marsh's *History of the Politics of Great Britain and France, from the Peace of Pilsnitz.*

[Art. concluded from the last Review.]

THE first volume of this work led us to the most important link in the history; viz. the communications between the Ministers of his Britannic Majesty, and M. M. Maret and Chauvelin. The author states that a French gentleman obtained an introduction to Mr. Pitt, as a person empowered by the French Executive Council to demand an audience of him, but insisted on withholding his name, till he should have a positive assurance that he should be received, and a rendezvous given. When the meeting took place, and his instructions were demanded, it appeared that he had no authority whatever; and he presented M. Maret, as the person authorized to treat: but, on being asked for his powers, he also acknowledged that he had none. Mr. Pitt, sacrificing his feelings to his desire of preserving peace, very civilly dismissed the *soi-disant* ambassadors; saying to M. Maret, that it would give him great pleasure to treat with him as a confidential person from the French Executive Council. That confidence was accordingly requested by M.

Maret: but the Executive Council refused to give him any powers, and ordered him to return to Paris immediately.

On the 27th of December 1792, M. Chauvelin delivered his famous note to Lord Grenville. The most important part of it is the passage by which he attempts to explain away the decree of the National Convention of the 19th of November, promising "fraternity and assistance to all nations who should wish to recover their liberty," by saying "that it was applicable only to those people, who, having conquered their liberty, might request the fraternity and assistance of the French Republic by a solemn and unequivocal expression of the general will." On this passage, Mr. Marsh expresses himself as follows:

'This explanation is an instance of such black hypocrisy, and such daring assurance, as is hardly to be found but within the limits of Republican France: for it was given twelve days after the decree of the 15th of December, in which the National Convention had solemnly declared that, "every nation, which would not rebel against its government, should be treated as an enemy." It was given likewise three days after the resolution of the 24th of December, by which the National Convention had determined, that "the decree of the 19th of November should be actually applied to England." And yet Mr. Chauvelin, or rather the Executive Council, was not ashamed to assert in this very note, that "such an idea could not without injustice be imputed to the National Convention, and that this venerable body, which had declared itself the decided enemy of all nations which would not rebel against their governments, had no design whatsoever of exciting insurrections in neutral countries." Besides, the interpretation here given of the decree of the 19th November, is in direct contradiction to the plain terms of the decree itself, *which are*, "the National Convention will grant fraternity and assistance to all the people who shall *wish to recover*," not *who shall have recovered* "their liberty," as the interpretation implies.—Further, the general proclamation, annexed to the decree of the 15th of December, in which the following words, "we are come to expel your tyrants," were put into the mouths of the French Generals, affords an additional proof, that it was not the intention of the National Convention to defer the promised fraternity, till the nations, for whom this inestimable blessing was designed, had *already* dethroned their sovereigns. And that it was the grand object of the decree of the 19th of November, to excite insurrections, had been admitted by the same French Minister, Le Brun, from whom Chauvelin received his instructions. For, on the 5th of December, (three weeks before Mr. Chauvelin delivered the present note to Lord Grenville,) Le Brun in a letter to the President of the National Convention, announced an insurrection in a bishoprick of the German empire as an happy effect of the decree of the 19th of November.'—

In like manner, the President himself, on the 3d of December, had quoted the decree in question, and introduced it with the following

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ing preface: "Shall we have restored the sovereignty of the people for no other purpose than to replunge them into slavery? The public instrument by which we are bound in alliance, and to reciprocal defence, is written in nature. Our principles, our hatred to kings, these are our ministers plenipotentiary." *Moniteur*, 6th December 1792.—After the unanimous interpretations, then, which had been publicly given in the Convention itself, at the beginning of December, one of which proceeded from the President, and another from the Minister for foreign affairs, it was expected that the British Ministry at the end of the same month should give credit to Mr. Chauvelin's diametrically opposite interpretation!

On a passage in the same note of M. Chauvelin to Lord Grenville, in which he formally declares "that France would not attack Holland while that power confined itself on its part within the bounds of strict neutrality," the author observes that

' Yet only fourteen days after this solemn declaration, the Executive Council sent positive orders to General Miranda, to invade, within twelve days at farthest, Dutch Flanders and the province of Zealand. It cannot be objected that the States General had in the mean time transgressed the bounds of neutrality; for a more scrupulous observation of them was impossible. An attack on France could not even have suggested itself to the Government of Holland; for the Dutch troops were withdrawn from the frontiers, to preserve tranquillity in the interior, which the French party in Holland threatened to disturb: and it was the defenceless state, in which the Dutch frontier towns were thus left, that tempted the Executive Council to give the order for invasion.'

Lord Grenville's answer was delivered to M. Chauvelin on the 31st of December; and a reply to it was returned on the 13th of January. Mr. Marsh copies the reply at length, and comments on it with great severity. On that part of it in which the Executive Council declares that "the Republic renounces conquest, and that its occupying the Netherlands would continue no longer than the war, and during that time which might be necessary for the Belgians to secure and consolidate their liberty; after which, provided they were independent or happy, France would be sufficiently rewarded;" he remarks that,

' At the very time that the Executive Council wrote thus sentimentally on the pretended independence of the Belgians, it was fully determined to incorporate Belgia into France. For, in the first place, within four and twenty hours after this note was signed, the Executive Council signed the instructions for the Commissaries in Belgia: and the whole drift of these instructions, which are printed in *Chaussard's Memoires Historiques et Politiques*, p. 180—228, was manifestly to reduce the Belgians to a state of absolute dependence on France, as every one must perceive even on a superficial reading. Secondly, on the 31st of December 1792, (a whole week before the note of the Executive Council to the British Government was signed,)

one of the Commissaries, Publicola Chaussard, received his private instructions to the same effect. Thirdly, when the Commissaries, who were nine in number, met at Brussels on the 3d of February 1793, to determine the important question, whether Belgium should be annexed to France, agreeably to their instructions, or, as was said, agreeably to the will of the Republic, the question was determined in the affirmative. See the documents in Chaussard's *Memoires*, p. 80—85.—'Lastly, General Dumouriez, who was well acquainted with the secrets of the French Government, has publicly made the following confession: "The real intention of the Executive Council was not that the Liegeois, and still less that the people of Flanders, should meet in a body, to form a constitution and laws for themselves: the Council feared that, once assembled, they might feel their strength and establish an independent republic." Dumouriez's *Life*, p. 348. vol. iii. There remains therefore not the shadow of a doubt, that it was the intention of the French Government from the very beginning to incorporate Belgia into France, and consequently it is certain that the assurances of the contrary, which were given to the British Government on the 7th of January, were given with the consciousness of their falshood.'

On this head, the author also observes that, so far from not aiming at conquest, the National Convention had a very few weeks before incorporated Nice into France by a solemn decree; and, within three weeks after the annexation of Nice was voted, the incorporation of the Austrian Netherlands and of the Bishopric of Liege was proposed by Danton, and only deferred till the *procès verbal* of the people of Liege was procured.

Mr. Marsh then proceeds to shew that the French rulers had fully resolved on a war with Great Britain, some time before the middle of January 1793. He adverts to Monge's circular letter of the 31st of December to the sea-port towns in France; by all of which it was considered as a signal for an immediate attack on England; and he quotes, from Dumouriez's *Memoirs*, the letter of Le Brun to that General, in which he tells him "to pay no regard to the negociation with Great Britain; that the negociation was not even a subject of inquiry." He cites Dumouriez's letter of the 15th of January, in which he says, "it would have been extremely easy for France to have avoided a war with England;" the remarkable declaration of Lord Auckland in the House of Lords, that, "on the 9th of January 1798, General Dumouriez himself acknowledged to his Lordship, that the French Executive Council had determined on a war with England;" and the positive orders of the 10th of January to General Miranda, for an immediate invasion of Holland.

Mr. Marsh then details at length the motives which induced France to force England into a war. We shall copy for our readers what he says on this subject:

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‘ The rational sense of liberty which had long prevailed in Britain, was scarcely awakened in France, when, in consequence of the impetuosity of the French character, it began to degenerate into wild enthusiasm. From the original design of establishing a monarchy, limited by a proper intermixture of democracy and aristocracy, which is the happiest constitution for a great empire, a sudden transition was made to all the horrors of anarchy: and the Constituent Assembly, in which were many very respectable members, was scarcely dissolved, when the Legislative Assembly which met in the autumn of 1791, and consisted chiefly of violent democrats, formed the secret resolution of dethroning the King of France, and of raising themselves, under the specious and alluring title of friends of the people, to the dignity of all-potent sovereigns. In the Jacobin Club especially, where all subjects of importance were discussed and arranged, before they were introduced into the National Assembly, the plan was already settled at the beginning of the year 1792, not only for the establishment of a republic in France, but for the introduction of the same form of government in every quarter of Europe. The spirit which animated the Club of the Jacobins, operated on almost every member of the National Assembly: and to the National Convention, which met in September 1792, it was transmitted in all its vigour. A hatred of kings which, without distinction, either of their political power, or of their private character, were denominated tyrants, betrayed itself in every harangue: and sovereigns of all descriptions were openly branded, in what was called the senate of a great nation, with the opprobrious appellation of public robbers. And this hatred displayed itself not merely in detached speeches, or in the opinions of only a few orators, but was so generally adopted that it became an essential ingredient in French politics. “ Principles,” said Gregoire, the President of the National Convention on the 28th of November 1792, “ are waging war against royalty, which will fall under the blows of philosophy;” and five days afterward, another President, Barrere, with his gorgeous eloquence, declared “ that their principles and their hatred of kings were their ministers plenipotentiary.” But should any one still entertain a doubt whether this hatred extended itself to the French rulers in general, it will certainly be removed by the following exclamation of the whole National Assembly on the 4th of September 1792, “ we all swear hatred to kings and to royalty.”

‘ This hatred, however, which had never been accompanied with fear, was gradually converted, before the declaration of war against England, into profound contempt; and the name of king was become, in the National Convention, a subject of jest and ridicule. “ Another Bourbon, (exclaimed Treilhard, then President of the Convention, on January 8th, 1793, when the King of the Two Sicilies had been forced by the French fleet in the Mediterranean to submit to an indignity,) another Bourbon in the number of the vanquished: kings are here the order of the day.”—And the contempt of the French rulers for the kingdom of Great Britain in particular was so great, that, according to their own declarations, they cared for it as little as for the republic of Ragusa. This contempt arose
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in some measure from the pride with which the successful campaign of 1792 necessarily inspired them, but more particularly from their conviction that French principles had every where taken such deep root, that the neighbouring nations were become ripe for rebellion, were prepared to depose their sovereigns, and to open their gates to the pretended deliverers of human-kind. Of the English nation, in particular, they entertained these sentiments: whence they supposed, that the English Government was not only in a state of debility, but approaching to its final dissolution; and so confident were they in their expectations of universal insurrection, that the impending execution of Louis the 16th was openly represented in the National Convention as a prelude to similar executions in the other kingdoms of Europe. "Teach the nations (said Remi, on the 2d of December, 1792,) to punish their tyrants in the manner which becomes them;" and two days afterward, the celebrated orator Carra, said likewise to the National Convention, "Ye know, that the stroke by which the head of Louis is about to fall, will make the heads of the other despots totter." And after the fatal catastrophe had taken place in France, Danton, speaking of kings in general, said only two days before the declaration of war against Great Britain: "You have thrown them the gauntlet; this gauntlet, is the head of a king: it is the signal of their approaching death." Even so early as the 21st of November, the President of the National Convention, Gregoire, in a speech which was translated into all languages, and was published two days after the celebrated decree, as a manifesto of all nations against their sovereigns, had declared "it was a glorious day for the universe, when the National Convention of France pronounced these words, *royalty is abolished.*"

That in making these, and numerous other declarations of the same kind, the rulers of France had their eyes directed particularly to Great Britain, is too apparent to stand in need of additional proof, since the whole of the preceding history contains one continual demonstration of it. All doubts however on this subject, should any really remain, will be removed by the speech which was uttered by Carra in the National Convention of the 2d of January; a speech, which is so much the more remarkable, as it was not only insolent in the extreme towards the British Government, but was delivered at the opening of the negociation between Lord Grenville and M. Chauvelin, and proved, therefore, or at least might have proved at that very time, to the world at large, that it was not the object of the National Convention to produce a reconciliation with the British Cabinet. "Your courage (said Carra,) will rouse all nations; and they will soon wish to have their tenth of August, their convention, and their republic. Already has George the Third commanded the Tower of London to be fortified; need we more, to enable us to predict the destruction of this new Bastile? Need we more, to enable us to foresee the overthrow of royal and noble tyranny in England? The human species commenced with infancy: it now approaches towards manhood. Form not then your judgment of what you have to fear by the preparations of England, and by the comedy now played by the Parliament in concert with the Court: and be assured, that

that it is not the real intention of the Court to make war on us, but merely to intimidate the National Convention; let therefore the head of Louis fall; and George the Third, with his minister, Pitt, will feel if their heads rest firm on their shoulders. Then will the Parliament of England no longer hesitate to demand an alliance with the French Republic. The same fate will attend the other despots: and shortly will every nation say, the head of our tyrant is not more divine than that of Louis; let us strike it off therefore; let us abolish royalty—let us imitate the French in every thing; and cries of *Vive la liberté! Vive l'égalité! Vive la république!* shall resound in every quarter of Europe." By speeches like these, and still more by actions which corresponded to them, the republicans of France, republicans who, as Louvet said, were worthy of the name, "aspired at the lasting renown, at the immortal honor of abolishing royalty itself, of abolishing it for ever, first in France, and then throughout the world."

In the next chapter, Mr. Marsh states, with great clearness, the events of the last fourteen days before the declaration of war. His account of the last mission of M. Maret to this country is, that the 24th of January was the day appointed for Maret's departure from Paris: but that Le Brun, willing, as Dumouriez himself observes in his Memoirs, to counteract the negotiation without appearing so to do, would not permit Maret to leave Paris till the 26th of that month. He landed at Dover, and thence wrote for farther instructions: he then went to London; and, on his arrival, he sent a short note to Lord Grenville, signifying to him that he had come over to take charge of the diplomatic papers in the house of the late French Envoy. He never requested an interview, nor solicited a correspondence; waiting, as he said, for instructions. These instructions never came; on the 4th of February, the French declaration of war was first known in London; and M. Maret then sent a letter to Lord Grenville to take leave on his return to Paris. Thus began and thus ended M. Maret's celebrated mission.

The 16th and last chapter of this work contains an account of the state of parties in France, at the beginning of the year 1793. The author's account of them is, nearly in his own words, as follows: The two great parties were the Jacobins, or Anarchists, headed by Robespierre; and the Girondists, headed by Brissot: the latter were men of talents and education; the Jacobins, though many of them were not devoid of natural abilities, were for the most part unlettered enthusiasts. The one had been educated in the school of French philosophy and the tenets of the Encyclopedists; the others had learned no maxims besides those which were suggested by anarchy and brutal violence. In regard to morality, the Jacobins set all honor and religion at open defiance; the Girondists

rondists possessed little of either, but had the habit of concealing their sentiments. In the struggle between two unprincipled parties, that which goes the greatest length usually has most the appearance of consistency, has fewer weak parts open to attack, has most power and energy, and will therefore generally succeed. Both the parties were unanimous for the war with Great Britain: but, as soon as the war grew somewhat unpopular in consequence of Dumouriez's defeat at Neerwenden, each reproached the other as being the authors of it. "Who provoked the war?" says Brissot, in his letter to his constituents, "the Anarchists alone." In return, when the Anarchists had brought Brissot to the bar, one of the principal charges against him was "that he had involved France in a war with England."—"No," he exclaimed, "it was not I, it was the Assembly of the Nation who decreed the war!" This, Mr. Marsh observes, is an acknowledgement from both parties, that not to the British, but to the French Government, its origin must be assigned. He then proceeds to a confutation of the eighteen pretexts alleged by the French in justification of the war, and to a general recapitulation of the leading points endeavoured to be established in his work.—An appendix is annexed, containing a narrative of the attempts made by the British Government to restore peace: written with a view to prove, that the continuance of the war can no more be ascribed to the British Government than the commencement of it.

Here the work concludes;—and we have thus endeavoured to give a full outline of its contents. Its importance, its celebrity on the Continent, and the high degree of consideration which the author of it enjoys in the literary world, have induced us to allot to it a larger space than political writings of the same size generally fill in our Review. The reader must see that it is the performance of a person who is completely master of his subject, accustomed to laborious and accurate investigation, to arrange his compositions in the best order, and to express himself with clearness and ease.—We shall conclude by an extract from the preface; in which the author shortly mentions some circumstances that gave rise to the work, and some which have been the consequences of its publication:

‘The history now presented to the British public, I wrote originally in German, a language which a long residence in the university of Leipzig has rendered as familiar to me as my own. A desire of rescuing my native country from the calumnies of some German journalists, had induced me at the beginning of the year 1798, when the attention of all Europe was engaged with the threatened invasion of Great Britain, to draw up a short essay, in the form of an epistle

to a literary friend at Weimar, in which I endeavoured to shew, that whatever might be the issue of the important, and then doubtful conflict, the blame of its origin attached only to the rulers of France. This essay was printed in the German Mercury for March 1798: and, as the period of the publication was very unfavorable to the author, the expectations of those who were attached to the French cause being at that time very high; it was not to be expected that those journalists, who had asserted, that the coalition against France in 1791, was formed by the intrigues of the British Cabinet, that the French rulers were solicitous for peace, but that the ministers of Great Britain, through mere hatred of the new republic, had resolved at all events to commence hostilities, and had so confidently repeated these assertions during several years, till at length they were received in almost every part of Germany, and in the adjacent countries, as indisputable truths; it was not to be expected, that such men, under such circumstances, would silently permit the oracular authority which they had so long enjoyed, to be questioned by a writer who had given no proofs of experience in political history. The opposition which was made, especially by one of them, determined me, therefore, to bring the question at once to an issue, by laying before the public all the facts and documents arranged in historical order, which concerned the relative politics of Great Britain and France, from the time of the coalition in 1791, to the declaration of war against Great Britain in February 1793. The decision was soon made: for my work had not long appeared, when the first literary reviews in Germany, though the contrary opinion had till that time very generally prevailed, pronounced that the British Government was completely rescued from the charges which had been laid to it, and that the origin as well as the continuance of the war, must be wholly and solely ascribed to the mad ambition of the French rulers. Even the journalist, who had so virulently attacked the essay inserted in the German Mercury, has since thought proper to assume a very different tone: he has not ventured any longer to direct his invectives against the British Government, but has turned them against the French Directory.'

Whether these volumes will have the same effect in silencing the British minister's adversaries in this country, respecting the charge of having engaged us in an unjust and unnecessary war, which they bring against him, we do not undertake to foretel: but, if Mr. Marsh has satisfactorily proved that the French were the aggressors in the contest, he has deserved well both of the government and his countrymen. The merit and ability of the performance are unquestionable; and we apprehend that the enemies and the friends of the minister will equally acknowledge, that it is the ablest work on the subject which has yet appeared in his favor.

P. S. We had just finished the foregoing analysis, when the author's Postscript to it came to hand. It relates to the overture of peace lately made to this country by Bonaparte. Mr. Marsh

Marsh says that Bonaparte foresaw that the bare consent of the British Ministry, to enter into a negotiation with the Consul of France, would have induced the Emperor of Russia instantly to withdraw his troops, and the Austrian Cabinet would have immediately made proposals for a separate peace, as in the year 1797; thus we should have been once more exposed to the necessity either of carrying on the war alone, or of submitting to the disadvantageous and dishonorable terms of peace which an haughty and inexorable enemy would impose; and thus, by our merely listening to his overtures, Bonaparte would have won the deep game which he is playing; and we should have paid the stakes.

ART. X. *Speech of the Right Hon. Lord Castlereagh, in the Irish House of Commons, February 5, 1800, on offering to the House certain Resolutions, proposing and recommending a complete and entire Union between Great Britain and Ireland.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1800.

AFTER so much ingenuity of discussion, the question of union can now receive little new light, except from experiment, that grand touch-stone of human opinions. It is not, however, to be pretended that "no argument is like matter of fact;" especially since the endeavour of the argument on one side has been to prove the impropriety of making the experiment.

The propositions, to which Lord Castlereagh's speech was introductory, render it an object of more than common interest. The opening, however, appears to us to be in a style not sufficiently conciliating to suit the occasion and the subject. To promote *union of sentiment* should more particularly be the endeavour of the friends of the proposed *political union*; because *union of sentiment* ought to be the foundation of a measure in which the future harmony of the two countries is so much involved.

In recommending the first three articles of the resolutions, Lord C. remarked on the inadequacy of the act of annexation, or of any other method short of a legislative union, to ensure a permanent connection, consistently with the rights of the Irish Parliament. The great object of a legislative union, he observed, was the establishing the identity of the Executive:

'The act of annexation (he said) went in principle to hand over to another country, in which we are not represented, one of the most important legislative powers, that of regulating the succession to the Crown; a power which never could be exercised by Great Britain, without jealousy and distraction on the part of this country; nor was the practice less defective than the principle. In the case of the regency,

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it was found so: for the Prince of Wales was constituted Regent by an address of the Irish Parliament, before any Regent was appointed for Great Britain; so that the unity of the Executive, the only bond of our present connection, depended on the British Parliament acquiescing in the choice of the Irish House of Commons: and for the dangers of this connection, (his Lordship said) he had the authority of a Right Hon. and Learned Member, who opposed the measure of union. That Right Hon. Member had introduced a bill avowedly to move on this argument in favour of union, grounded upon the act of annexation; but when it was pressed upon him to say whether he would surrender the right of the Irish Parliament to Great Britain, he was so startled at this idea, that he abandoned his own bill: thus confirming the weakness of the bond by which the unity of the Executive was secured.'—'After the abdication of King James II. he withdrew into this country, and setting himself up with the Irish Parliament in opposition to England, gave a strong practical proof of the tendency of distinct legislatures to ultimate separation.'—

'On all the great imperial questions of war, peace, and treaties, what was the situation of Ireland? To avoid separation, she was bound, without deliberation, to adopt the conduct of Great Britain; if she dissented from that conduct, her dissent tended to that separation which it was so much the true interest of Ireland to avoid; and as the country advanced in wealth and prosperity, it was more likely that such questions would more frequently occur, and be more anxiously discussed.'

In answer to its being objected that the proposed union would reduce Ireland to the state of a colony, Lord C. observed: 'If I were called upon to describe a colony, I would describe it as something very like the present state of this country, enjoying indeed a local legislature, but without any power entrusted to that legislature, with respect to regulating the succession of the Crown. I would describe it as having an Executive administered by the orders of the minister of another country, not in any way responsible to the colony for his acts or his advice.'

The principles, on which it is proposed to establish the proportions of contribution to the general expences of the empire, appear rather in an indigested state. 'The best criterion of ability,' said Lord Castlereagh, 'as embracing all kinds of possession and expence, was an income-tax; this was not a criterion to be found in Ireland, nor was it likely that for some time our local circumstances could permit its operation; so that some other must be sought.'—We cannot avoid remarking that the amount of the income-tax, as established in Great Britain, is not perfectly adapted to be taken as a criterion of ability. The more a country is in debt, the less is her real ability to furnish taxes: but the debt of Great Britain considerably increases the produce of her income—

tax. The produce is likewise liable to variation from different distributions of the same property. The total amount of rents, in each country, appears to be one of the least artificial, and certainly not the least stable, among the *data* for determining comparative ability: but it has not obtained notice in Lord C.'s estimates. One piece of *GENEROSITY*, stated on the part of Great Britain, will not perhaps excite much admiration;—the giving 'to Ireland the actual advantage of her share of the sum paid annually by the East India Company.' As the charter of the East India Company excludes Ireland, she is in course entitled to her proportion of the consideration; which she receives, not as a gift, in its being applied to the general expenditure. This article being merely charged as a compliment, it may be regarded as an innocent ornament to one side of the statement. We believe, indeed, that the proposed union has not originated in any illiberal idea of profiting in pecuniary matters, and at our neighbour's expence. Whether a legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland shall take place, or the connection of the two countries shall remain in its present state, an increase of prosperity to either ought to be regarded, and will be felt, as an increase of prosperity to the other.

On the remaining subjects of his Lordship's speech, we shall only remark that the proposed scheme respecting representation, if fully and fairly put into execution, will be a considerable improvement to the representative system of Ireland.

Having gone through the outline of the plan, Lord Castlereagh said that he trusted he had stated 'enough to shew, that the proposal was such an one as it was honest in Great Britain to make, and honorable for Ireland to accept; one which would remove those anomalies from the executive, to which it was perpetually liable; one which would relieve the apprehensions of those who feared, that Ireland should be saddled with the expences of Great Britain.'—

We add our earnest wish that, if the plan be adopted, it may prove a means of increasing and perpetuating that mutual good will, which is so necessary to the security and happiness of the empire.

ART. XI. *Anecdotes and Biography*, including many modern Characters in the Circles of Fashionable and Official Life, selected from the Portfolios of a distinguished literary and political Character lately deceased. Alphabetically arranged. By L. T. Rede. 8vo. pp. 461. 7s. Boards. Pitkeathley. 1799.

IN spite of the numerous compilations of this kind which have recently issued from the press, Mr. Rede, or his *distinguished*

distinguished character, has contrived to glean materials for a very amusing book. In his advertisement, he informs us with great truth that 'several of the anecdotes are original, and that such as had appeared before were worthy of a more permanent medium than that through which they were at first conveyed.'

Though the alphabetic arrangement may have its convenience, (it is that of a French Joe Millét, published more than thirty years ago: *Dictionnaire d'Anecdotes*, &c.) it precludes all attention to chronology; and an ample index would have pointed out not only names but things, with equal convenience.

The following article is entertaining and characteristic:

MRS. NELL GWYN.

A very singular Woman, and an extraordinary Instance of the Caprice of Fortune.

The origin of this person was of the lowest rank, and her employment in that city, where one of her descendants enjoys the emoluments of the prelacy, of the most inferior kind; indeed, it is there, or in the neighbourhood, that the tradition of the place supposes her to have been born. From thence, by one of the many transitions which transplant individuals of the labouring class from one place to another, she became an inhabitant of the metropolis, and the servant of a fruiterer, who was, probably, one of those who attended the play-house, as it appears that in this character she first obtained admission into the theatre in Drury-lane.

What favour of fortune advanced her from this humble situation to the stage, whether from the general recommendation which her natural humour and vivacity gave her, or a passion which Mr. Hart, the player, had for her, is unknown. It is certain she was a favourite of Dryden's, who gave her the most shewy and alluring parts in his comedies, and wrote several prologues and epilogues expressly for her, but the more immediate cause of her becoming an object of the Monarch's affection was as follows:

At the Duke's house, under Killegrew's patent, the celebrated *Nokes* had appeared in a hat, larger than *Pistol's*, which pleased the audience so much as to help off a bad play; Dryden caused a hat to be made of the circumference of a large coach-wheel, and as Mrs. Gwyn was low in stature, made her speak an epilogue under the umbrella of it, with its brim stretched out in its utmost horizontal extension. No sooner did she appear in this strange dress, than the house was in convulsions of laughter. Among the rest, the King gave the fullest proof of approbation, by going behind the scenes immediately after the play, and taking her home in his own coach to supper with him.

After this elevation, she still continued on the stage, and though in general comedy she did not rank with Betterton, Marshall, Lee, Bourell, &c. for the airy, fantastic, sprightly exhibitions of the comic Muse, her genius was most aptly calculated, and, according

to the taste of those times, she was considered the best prologue and epilogue speaker on either theatre.

It now remains to consider her as the mistress of a King, and here she nobly belied the baseness of her origin, and that seminary of vice in which she was bred. Mrs. Gwyn met and bore her good fortune as if she had been bred to it, discovering neither avarice, pride, nor ostentation; she remembered all her theatrical friends, and did them services; she generously paid off her debt of gratitude to Dryden, and was the patroness of Otway and Lee.

When she became more immediately connected with the King, that gay monarch was already surrounded with mistresses. The Duchesses of Portsmouth and Plymouth, with Miss Davis, and others, were considered to be in that capacity, but these were known to have been unrestrained in their conduct. Mrs. Gwyn preserved her character of fidelity to the last; and being once solicited by a Sir John Germain, to whom she had lost a considerable sum of money at play, to exchange the debt for other favors, she no less honestly than wittily replied, *No, Sir John, I am too good a sportswoman to lay the dog where the deer should lie.*

She was not only the favourite of the Monarch, but the favourite of the people, and though that age abounded with satires and lampoons against the rest of the King's mistresses, as the causes of political disasters, Mrs. Gwyn, except in the instance of a few lines written by Lord Rochester, not only escaped, but even met their approbation, as she never troubled herself with politics. She was munificent in her charities, sociable with her friends, and what was singular enough, piqued herself on her regard for the church of England, contrary to the then disposition of the Court.

As a proof how much she was in the favour of the people, an eminent goldsmith, who died about forty years since, in the 79th year of his age, has been often heard to relate, that, when he was an apprentice, his master made a most expensive service of plate, as a present from the King to the Duchess of Portsmouth, and that a great number of people used to crowd the shop to gratify their curiosity, and throw out curses against the Duchess; but that all were unanimous in wishing the present had been for Mrs. Gwyn.

In her person, according to her picture by Lely, she was low in stature, red haired, and had what the French call *en bon point*. There is a bust now to be seen of her at Bagnigge-Wells, formerly her country-house. She had remarkable small but lively eyes: her foot was of the most diminutive size, and used to be the subject of much mirth to her merry paramour.

She had a very fine understanding, was humorous, witty, and possessed the talents so necessary to enliven conversation in an eminent degree, and generally kept her place at table with the King, the Lords Rochester, Shaftesbury, &c. till they quitted the bounds of decency, when she never failed to retire.

She lived long enough to see, and without doubt to lament, the decline of that family which had raised her to rank and fortune, having the good sense to avoid meddling with the politics of the times.—After the King's death, she purchased a house in Pall-Mall, where

where she lived many years with an unblemished reputation, and where she died in 1691, and was buried with great funeral solemnity in the parish church of St. Martin in the Fields, to the ringers of which, among other valuable donations, she left a sum of money to supply them with a weekly entertainment, which they enjoy to this day.

‘ Dr. Tennyson, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury, preached her funeral sermon.’

The late Lord Vere, a descendant of Mrs. Gwyn, related, in the hearing of the writer of this article, a circumstance which seemed to imply a tendency to republicanism in this British *Aspasia*, though the concubine of a King*. “ On every 30th of January, (said Lord Vere,) during the reigns of the Stuarts, the Court, and a great part of the nation, used to put on deep mourning: but my grandmother often dressed up my father, when a boy, in the gayest and most tawdry dress she could find, and sent him to the drawing-room with some frivolous message to the King; who, when he saw him, cried out, Get along, you little bastard! what do you come here for in that dress?”

The article *DREAMS*, and the *Observations on Sleep*, are curious and well-written: but too long for insertion here.

‘ FARINELLI,

‘ An eminent Italian singer, rendered insolent by the incense of the British nation. He despised their praise, paid respect with insult, and, pocketing their gold, retired to enjoy affluence and independence in his native country.

‘ After much intreaty, and an extravagant pecuniary consideration, he had been prevailed on to engage to sing at a public entertainment, given by the late Duke of Northumberland, who assembled on the occasion a large company of the nobility, gentry, and others. The amateurs were waiting on the tiptoe of expectation to listen with extacy to his warblings, when he rudely sent a verbal message, that he was otherwise engaged, and could not possibly attend. His Grace was severely mortified, and apologized to his friends for their disappointment. The Duke of Modena, to whom Farinelli was a subject, being at that time on his tour to England, and one of the company, begged pardon for interrupting his Grace of Northumberland, and dispatched a servant to the singer, with orders for his immediate attendance.

‘ Farinelli came, when a chair was placed for him in the room, and every person, except the Prince, stood up. “ Does your Grace permit a public singer to sit in your presence?” exclaimed his Highness; “ have the goodness to excuse my officious interference, but we manage these gentry better in Italy. Farinelli, stand in yonder corner of the room, and sing your best song, in your best manner, to this company, who honour you with their notice.” The squeaking

* Perhaps, however, it was mere pleasantry.

minion trembled and obeyed, and after his song retired with a humble bow from the room, receiving from the Duke, at the same time, a nod of approbation.

The character here given of this exquisite singer, and (according to every well-authenticated account) truly worthy man, is so different from all that we have ever heard or read of him, that, in pure Quixotism, we shall endeavour to rescue him from the present seemingly unjust aspersions.

We are indeed sorry that Mr. Rede has disgraced his compilation by so ill-founded an article. The late histories of music, and the letters of the celebrated poet Metastasio, (a writer of good taste, sound judgment, and of the most scrupulous probity,) as well as the memoirs of this admirable lyric poet by Dr. Burney, contain so many anecdotes which do honor to the head and heart, as well as to the matchless talents of this vocal performer, that we were greatly surprized and dissatisfied at this anecdote. Not one of the facts seems to be well-founded. They may indeed suit many other great opera singers, who, intoxicated with applause, and with the importance which splendid talents and powers of pleasing give to them, are very apt to forget themselves; and, by caprice and insolence, to dissolve every charm which their abilities had created.

We believe that there is not on record one instance of Farinelli being guilty of insolence or disrespect to any nobleman, gentleman, or musical professor, while he remained in England; nor did he quit this country to enjoy our wealth in his own. He went hence to Spain, where he was caressed, knighted, and enriched with a pension for life of 2000l. a year. The late Duke of Northumberland was Sir Hugh Smithson while Farinelli was in England, and many years afterward; and his predecessor was not a patron of music. Neither was Farinelli a subject of the Duke of Modena, but of the King of Naples; in which city he began his career.

Under the article HUMAN SPECIES, we have a series of stories from Lord Monboddo, without any comment, which are too wild and marvellous for the nursery; indeed they are such that the editor has probably inserted them in order to disgrace the author from whom they are selected.

SOAME JENNINGS. (Jenyns.)

The character of this lively writer seems to be nicely touched:

1. His intellectual powers were of the higher order; his life had been very active and diversified; he had read much, and seen more; he was rich in the experience of more than fourscore years. He conversed as well as he wrote; *how* he wrote is dispatched in few words: his thoughts were sprightly, his expression neat.—This is the character both of his verse and prose.

“ On his death-bed he spoke much of his little book on Christianity; — he spoke as one prepared to die; he did not shrink from it as an evil nor a punishment, but met it with firmness as his original destiny, the kind release from what was worse, the more kind summons to all that is better.

2. He was supposed to know very well what was to be got from a minister, and it was believed he never gave a vote against government. He was a singular man, of singular talents; he wrote an essay on the origin of evils, which is one kind of performance; he afterwards published an essay on the internal evidence of the Christian religion, which is another kind of performance; and he was supposed to be the author of several little productions, in prose and verse, which are neither one nor the other. He was a Lord of Trade; and it is to be told to his honour, that, when the destruction of that Board was in agitation in the House of Commons, and while his unblushing brethren were labouring to support its golden sinecures, he was the only one among them who had sufficient virtue to leave the house before the division.

In the PARALLELS between THE CIVILIZED MAN AND THE SAVAGE, the balance, according to the author's representation, is so much in favor of the superior felicity of a savage state compared with that of civilization, that it is marvellous that he should lose his time in this vale of tears, when he might spend it so much more happily in New Zealand, or the wilds of Africa.

The article relative to the celebrated Mr. Pope, with an original letter from him, may be acceptable to our readers:

1. During Pope's last illness, a squabble happened in his chamber between his two Physicians, (Dr. Burton and Dr. Thompson,) Dr. Burton charging Dr. Thompson with hastening his death by the violent purges he had prescribed, and the other retorting the charge. Mr. Pope at length silenced them, saying, “ Gentlemen, I only learn by your discourse that I am in a very dangerous way; therefore all I now ask is, that the following epigram may be added after my death to the next edition of the *Dunciad*, by way of postscript:

“ Dunces rejoice, forgive all censures past,

The greatest dunce has kill'd your foe at last.”

2. The late Queen Caroline declared her intention of honoring Mr. Pope with a visit at Twickenham. His mother was then alive; and, lest the visit should give her pain, on account of the danger his religious principles might incur by an intimacy with the Court, his piety made him, with great duty and humility, beg that he might decline this honour. Some years after, his mother being dead, the Prince of Wales condescended to do him the honour of a visit. When Mr. Pope met him at the water-side, he expressed his sense of the honour done him in very proper terms, joined with the most dutiful expressions of attachment. On which the Prince said, “ It is very well; but how shall we reconcile your love to a Prince with your professed indisposition to Kings, since Princes will be Kings in time?” “ Sir,” replied Pope, “ I consider royalty under that

noble and authorised type of the lion ;—while he is young, and before his nails are grown, he may be approached and caressed with safety and pleasure."

' 3. An original Letter from Mr. Pope to the Duchess of Hamilton.

' London, Oct. the —, between day and night. *The writer drunk.*

' Madam,

' Mrs. Whitworth (who, as her epitaph on Twickenham highway assures us, had attained to as much perfection and purity as any since the Apostles) is now deposited, according to her own order, between a fig-tree and a vine, there to be found out at the last resurrection.

' I am just come from seeing your Grace in much the like situation, between a honey-suckle and a rose-bush, where you are to continue as long as canvas can last. I suppose the Painter by these emblems intended to intimate, on the one hand, your Grace's sweet disposition to your friends, and on the other, to shew you are near enough related to the thistle of Scotland, to deserve the same motto with regard to your enemies :

' *Nemo me impune lacessit.*

' The two foregoing periods, methinks, are so mystical, learned, and perplexed, that if you have any Statesmen or Divines about you, they cannot choose but be pleased with them. One Divine you cannot be without, as a good Christian ; and a Statesman you have lately had, for I hear my Lord Selkirk has been without you. But (that I may not be unintelligible quite to the bottom of this page) I must tell your Grace in English, that I have made a painter bestow the aforesaid ornaments round about you, (for upon you there needs none,) and am, upon the whole, pleased with my picture beyond expression.

' I may now say of your picture, it is the thing in the world the likeliest you, except yourself ; as a cautious person once said of an elephant ; it was the biggest in the world, except itself.

' You see, Madam, it is not impossible for you to be compared to an elephant. And you must give me leave to shew you one may carry on the simile.

' An elephant never bends his knees ; and I am told your Grace says no prayers. An elephant has a most remarkable command of his snout, and so has your Grace, when you imitate my Lady Orkney. An elephant is a great lover of men, and so is your Grace for all I know ; though from your partiality to myself, I should rather think you love little children.

' I beg you not to be discouraged in this point : remember the text, which I'll preach upon the first day I am a parson, *Suffer little children to come unto me,—and despise not one of these little ones.*

' No, Madam,—despise great beasts, such as Gay, who now goes by the dreadful name of The Beast of Blois, where Mr. Pulteney and he are settled, and where he shews tricks gratis to all the beasts of his own country (for strangers do not yet understand the voice of the beast.) I have heard from him but once, Lord Warwick twice, Mrs. Lepell thrice ; if there be any has heard from him four times, I suppose it is you.

' I beg

‘ I beg Mr. Blundell may know Dr. Logg has received ordination, and enters on his functions this winter at Mrs. Blount’s. They have chosen this innocent man for their confessor; and I believe most Roman Catholic ladies, that have any sins, will follow their example. This good Priest will be of the order of Melchisedeck, a Priest for ever, and serve a family from generation to generation. He’ll stand in a corner as quietly as a clock, and, being wound up once a week, strike up a loud alarm on a Sunday morning. Nay, if the Christian religion should be abolished, (as indeed there is great reason to expect it, from the wisdom of the Legislature,) he might at worst make an excellent bonfire; which is all that (upon a change of religion) can be desired from a heretic. I do not hope your Grace should be converted; but, however, I wish you would call at Mrs. Blount’s out of curiosity: to meet people one likes is thought by some the best reason for going to church, and I dare promise you’ll like one another. They are extremely your servants, or else I should not think them my friends.

‘ I ought to keep up the custom, and ask you to send me something; therefore, pray, Madam, send me yourself,—that is a letter; and pray make haste to bring up yourself, that is all I value, to town.

‘ I am, with the truest respect, the least ceremony, and the most zeal, Madam,

‘ Your Grace’s most obedient, faithful,

‘ And most humble, servant, A. Pops.

“ Mr. Hamilton, I am your’s.”—There is a short letter for you. A. P.

There are many other articles which would tempt us to quote: but we have already been liberal, though without great nicety of selection: the reader may, therefore, be assured of finding numerous tid-bits, if he will take the trouble to carve for himself.

A table of Errata is wanting to this book, particularly for the proper names, which are very incorrectly printed in many instances: we have *Bottetot* for *Bottetourt*, *Disenfarts* for *Des Enfants*, *Schemling* for *Schmeling*, &c.

ART. XII. *Transactions of the Society instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year 1799.* Vol. XVII. 8vo. pp. 464. 5s. Boards. Robson, Becket, &c.

So laudable is the general design of this Society, and so multiplied and various are the objects which it embraces, that it would be a want of public spirit to indicate a wish to repress its exertions. Far be from us such a desire: yet it may not be possible for us gravely to contemplate all its efforts. A premium is continued to be offered for the best method of *Making Meadow-Hay in Wet Weather*; and a short paper is

inserted in the subsequent communications, the purport of which is to shew that clover, lucerne, and other strong-stalked plants, have been made into hay, by a particular process, in the northern counties, in wet seasons. We doubt the fact, however, that *good hay* has been made even of strong-stalked plants in seasons *absolutely and uniformly wet*; and even supposing that it were true, this would afford little encouragement to hope that meadow-hay could be well made in wet weather. We indeed can propose a method by which it may be done: but, as this is not a cheap one, we shall despair of having the gold medal or thirty guineas awarded to us. If a tent or awning were erected over the whole field, so that no rain could fall on the grass after it was cut; or if the grass, on being cut, were removed into large buildings, (which last method, we have been told, is practised on the Duke of Argyle's estate in Scotland,) and kept turned till the moisture be sufficiently dried out of it, tolerable hay may be procured in rainy seasons: but this will not be so good as that which is made by the help of sun-beams. To make sure of good hay, the most effectual method would be to offer a premium for the best method of preventing wet-weather during the hay-harvest!—Let us, however, be serious, and return to the contents of the volume.

We highly applaud the extension of the Society's regard to the accommodation of the labouring poor; and we are happy in seeing among their offered rewards, the gold medal to the person who in the year 1799 shall erect the greatest number of cottages for the accommodation of the labouring poor, and appointing *not less than two acres of land* to each cottage. Perhaps this allowance of land to every cottage is more than is necessary, and would be more than every poor man could cultivate consistently with the duty which he owes to his employer. We wish, therefore, that the quantity of land had been *indefinite*; and, as there are many miserable huts (or hovels) in the distant counties, which are the only habitations assigned to the poor,—and which disgrace and disfigure the districts to which they belong, and are a reproach to the nation at large,—may it not deserve the consideration of the Society, in what way they could best invite our nobility, gentry, rich land-owners, and monied men, to substitute comfortable and decent cottages for these wretched and filthy hovels; or, in other words, to convert an assemblage of miserable huts into a neat and picturesque village, which the eye of Humanity might contemplate with satisfaction, and the eye of Taste might view without disgust? Many villages require to be rebuilt; and, supposing each cottage to cost 50*l.*, may not the Society propose the value of a cottage to be given

to the person, who shall rebuild the most poor cottages on his estate; the number so rebuilt to be not less than twenty, nor more than two together? It may also offer a reward for the best plan for arranging the habitations of the poor in an agricultural parish.

We make no farther remarks on the premiums proposed in this volume, but shall proceed to notice the communications.

PAPERS IN AGRICULTURE.

The first is from Nathaniel Kent, Esq. containing, by permission of his Majesty, an Account of the Improvements on the Farm in the Great Park at Windsor.

Mr. Kent relates that, in the year 1791, the Great Park at Windsor, containing about 4000 acres, fell into his Majesty's possession; that the soil is various, in some parts clay and loam, and in others sharp gravel, or poor sand;—that a great part of the former was covered with rushes and mole-hills, and the latter with fern and moss;—that about 1000 acres of the highest part were separated from the rest at one extremity, and formed what is called the Norfolk Farm; and that about 400 more, at the other extremity, of a good loamy soil, were separated, and called the Flemish Farm; both being named from the nature of the husbandry designed to be adopted on them; that the rest (about 2,400 acres*) remains still in plantation and park, and, though so much reduced, yet; from the improvements which have been made on it by draining, harrowing, and rolling, is now capable of carrying more stock than the whole 4000 acres did before.

In the brief account here given of the Norfolk Farm, we find that 'it is managed under a five-course shift, of one hundred acres in a shift; as thus,—first, wheat or rye; second, the irregular shift; third, turnips; fourth, barley or oats; fifth, clover.'—The irregular shift, which is of great use on a light land farm, is thus explained: 'it is meant to be partly productive and partly preparative. Forty acres of it are sown with vetches, to be fed off; forty are sown the latter end of August with rye, for early feed the next spring for the ewes and lambs; the remaining twenty acres are planted with potatoes, and the whole comes round for turnips the next year.'

By the experiments made on these farms, the advantages of employing oxen in husbandry, instead of horses, are attempted to be established. Of the former, his Majesty has not fewer than one hundred and eighty on his different farms, parks, and gardens; and they are found to answer so well, that now not one horse is kept. For the particular mode of

* Should not this be 2,600?

treatment, we must refer to the paper; only observing that the average profit of the ox is stated at 20 l. *per cent.*

Mr. Kent concludes his history of his Majesty's Farms with an account of 'an Over-shot Mill, which our amiable Sovereign, for the benefit of the poor, has caused to be erected and worked by the waste water from the lake below the Lodge. Here a sufficiency of corn, two-thirds wheat and one-third rye, is ground and dressed, and given to all the labourers, at sixteen pence *per stone* of fourteen pounds, in quantities suitable to the size of their families.'—If such a mill could be erected in every parish, it would be a great advantage to the labouring Poor. It is by such establishments, and not by *little evanescent charities*, that we are to attempt to mend their condition.

The second paper merely relates the *planting of seven acres and a half of Osiers*, by Thomas Page, Esq. of Ely: for which he was rewarded with the Honorary Gold Medal.

The third communication gives a particular account of the process of Mr. Robert Dudgeon, of Tynningham, in the *culture of Beans and Wheat*, on twenty-three and a half acres of land, English statute measure. He sowed, by drilling, an hundred and twenty-six bushels of Tick beans; the total produce of which was one hundred and thirteen quarters, five bushels, and three pecks.

Mr. D. observes that the seed of the wheat-crop, which followed that of the beans, was raised by him from a single grain; and that it has been his practice for some time to raise his seed-corn from the produce of a single grain, picked while growing in the field: he finds it a considerable improvement, as it equalizes the period of ripening, and produces a better sample at market, the grains being all nearly of a size.

The fourth paper contains an account of *cultivating six acres of poor land with Potatoes, and afterward feeding Cattle and Sheep with them*, by Mr. William Seaton, Tilgate, Sussex. The expence is stated at 31 l. 14 s. and the value of the produce at 79 l. 16 s. 6 d.

In the fifth article, an interesting account is given by Mr. Robert Bell, of Huntshill near Jedburgh, North Britain, of *Improvements, on an extensive scale, of Lands lying waste or uncultivated*. The exertions of Mr. B. appear to have been as promising as they were spirited: but he did not live completely to execute them: though he so far succeeded as to increase the value of an estate of 1,100 acres, from three hundred and twelve to more than twelve hundred pounds *per annum*.

The sixth paper is similar to the preceding, and relates the *Improvements of Mr. John Fox on 172 acres of waste uncultivated Land on Box-hill, Dorking, Surrey*.

The

The subject of the next communication is what is called *tipping* clover-hay; 'which is done by rolling the grass up, immediately after the scythe, into bundles or tipples, of the size of a small barley sheaf, drawing out a band from one side, twisting it as drawn out, and tying it firm round. Then placing the tippie between the knees, the part above the band is drawn through the hands with a twist, and the longest grasses drawn out so far as to tie in a knot, which finishes the point of the cone, and forms the tippie. It is then set on its base.'

We know not how far this will be generally intelligible: but we apprehend that the same purpose of carrying off the rain might be answered equally well, with much less trouble. However, four short letters speak in favour of this practice.

To Mr. Middleton, the intelligent author of the *Survey of Middlesex*, the Society is indebted for the eighth paper, *on different kinds of Manure*.—After having enumerated the several manures commonly employed, he composes an eulogy on *Night-soil*, and laments (as he did in his *Survey*) that the *soil of privies*, so valuable as a manure, should for the most part be washed into rivers instead of being carted on the land. He estimates this loss in Britain at five millions of pounds sterling *per annum*.

The succeeding paper details Experiments made by Matthew Forster, Esq. on a twenty-one-acre-field of light sandy loam, to determine *the comparative advantage of the Drill or Broad-cast method in the cultivation of Turnips*. These experiments are in favor of the drill husbandry, and of drills at two feet distance, in preference to 18 inches.

The letter which follows is from the Rev. Henry Jerome De Salis, D. D. *on the cultivation of Parsnips, and the feeding of cattle and sheep with them*; and the last communication, under the head of Agriculture, is a Letter from Thomas Skip Dyot Bucknall, Esq. relative to the cause of *Blight on Fruit Trees*, which is considered as a supplementary paper to his *Letters on Orcharding*. See M. R. vol. xxii. p. 138.

PAPERS IN POLITE ARTS.

This department opens with a continuation of Mr. Shel-drake's Dissertation (printed in the preceding volume) *on painting in Oil, in a manner similar to that practised in the Venetian School*; it details the process used to separate the Mucilage from Linseed Oil, &c. so as to fit them to serve as vehicles in that manner of painting.—To this paper is subjoined the method which he employed to dissolve Copal in Spirits of Turpentine, and in Alcohol.

We are next presented with the process of producing the Lights in stained Drawings, purchased for 20 guineas of Mr. Francis Nicholson,

Nicholson, of Ripon, Yorkshire. The method is thus detailed :

‘ The principle of this process consists in covering the places where the touches of light are intended to be, with a composition not liable to be displaced by washing over it with the colour, and such as may be afterwards removed by a fluid in which the colours used in water are not soluble.

‘ This composition or stopping mixture is made by dissolving bees-wax in oil of turpentine, in the proportion of one ounce of wax to five ounces of the oil ; and, as near the time of using it as may be convenient, grind with the pallet-knife as much flake-white, or white-lead, in oil of turpentine, as may be wanted at one time ; dilute it with the above solution until it will work freely with the pencil, and appear on the paper, when held between the eye and the light, to be opaque. It is necessary to observe this, or the first touches will not be sufficiently visible ; after being washed over with the colours, to ascertain the places of the second. It is also necessary to use a frame instead of the drawing-board, or to paste the paper on the frame of the drawing-board ; so as to remove the pannel ; because the first and second touches must be put on with the drawing placed between the eye and the light, as they will be most visible in that situation. On this frame paste the paper wet so as to dry firm : when quite dry, draw the outline, and proceed as follows :

‘ 1st, With a fine small hair pencil, and the stopping mixture, cover those places where the clear whiteness of the paper may be wanted, except in the sky : let it dry a few minutes ; then wet the paper on both sides, and while it is wet wash the sky. The shadows of the clouds, distances, and general breadths of shadow, must be put in with the grey tint ; and over the places of the light, wash the tints of the brightest light ; those will be generally yellow oker, or light red.

‘ The light of the clouds may be preserved sharp by pressing on that part a piece of tissue-paper, previous to the washing of the sky ; this, by absorbing the superfluous moisture, will prevent the colour from spreading farther than is desired. Suffer the whole to be very dry ; and

‘ 2dly, Touch in with the stopping mixture the sharp and prominent parts of the brightest lights ; let them dry a few minutes, then wash over them with the tints of the next degree of light.

‘ 3dly, Stop with the mixture the second order of touches, and wash over them with the middle tints ; strengthen also at the same time the breadths of shadow.

‘ 4thly, Stop with broad touches of the mixture the places of the middle tint, uniting them to the former touches, and extending them so as to graduate the middle colours into the shadow : strengthen the shadows, making them nearly as dark as they are intended to be, and let the whole be perfectly dry.

‘ Then take oil of turpentine, and with a sponge, or hog’s hair pencil, wash over the places where the mixture has been used, rubbing it with the brush until it be dissolved : clear it away with a linen rag, and

and wash it with more oil of turpentine so long as any white lead appears; then let it dry.

Warm the drawing; then with a soft brush, and highly rectified spirit of wine, wash the places where the oil of turpentine has been used, to clear away the remainder of it: rub the drawing lightly on the face, but sponge it well on the back.

When dry, tint down the lights where it may be wanted; harmonize the colouring, and out the shadows to effect, with still darker tints as may be necessary.

If other touches of light should afterwards be wanted in the shadowed parts, the colour may be easily removed by a pencil formed of sponge, with water sufficiently to produce them with as much strength as can be desired; then stop them with the mixture; wash the shadow over the touches, bringing it to the colour taken off; and when dry, remove the mixture with the oil of turpentine and spirit of wine.

The only remaining paper in this class is a letter from the Miss Knights, of Sticken, in Buckinghamshire, accompanied by two busts modelled in clay, and two casts in Plaster of Paris, likenesses of and executed by themselves, and 'hardened by wax in such a manner that those in clay represent bronze, and those in plaster, marble,' explaining the method by which the clay and plaster were hardened. The process is very simple.

THE PAPERS IN MECHANICS

Are, first, an account by Mr. Robert Hynam of Petersburg (accompanied with plates and calculations) of his *Instrument for gauging cutters for wheels*, for the use of clock and watch-makers. This ingenious and useful paper, justly rewarded by the gold medal, cannot be abridged.

The second memoir relates the application of a *CRANK to answer the purpose of an Escapement in Clocks*, by Mr. Simon Goodrich, who received for it a bounty of sixty-five pounds. This invention cannot be explained without the plates.

The third paper explains a method of *turning Spherical Forms in wood*, by Mr. Thomas Cook, of Newington, Surrey; rewarded with a bounty of twenty guineas.—The fourth describes a machine for *counterbalancing ropes in deep mines* (with a drawing) by Mr. Wm. Featherstonehaugh, of Lambton, Durham;—and the fifth is an account of a method of *laying on water on water-wheels*, by Sir Thomas Hanmer, Bart.—Without the plates, these papers do not admit of explanation.

Under the title of *COLONIES AND TRADE*, we find only one paper, which merely contains certificates of the planting of *Bread-fruit Trees* in Jamaica, reported to be in a thriving state.

The remainder of the volume is occupied as usual. Prefixed to it, is a copper-plate portrait of Dr. Peter Templeman; executed

cuted as a respectful and grateful tribute to the memory of the Society's former learned secretary. Since the appearance of this volume, they have sustained another loss of this nature, in the death of the late worthy Mr. Samuel More, who filled that office during many years.

ART. XIII. *The History of Framlingham*, in the County of Suffolk; including brief Notices of the Master and Fellows of Pembroke Hall in Cambridge, from the Foundation of the College to the present Time. Begun by the late Robert Hawes, Gent. Steward of the Manors of Framlingham and Saxted. With considerable Additions and Notes. By Robert Loder. 4to. pp. 470. 11. 1s. Boards. Printed by and for R. Loder, Woodbridge.

In the preface to this volume, we have the following information respecting its materials :

‘ This work, forming part of the History of the Hundred of Loes, is extracted from a very fair MS. comprising upwards of 700 folio pages closely written, adorned in the body of the history and in the margins, with drawings of Churches, Gentlemen's Seats, miniature Portraits, ancient Seals, and Coats of Arms of the Nobility, Gentry, and Clergy blazoned in their proper Colours, which was compiled by Robert Hawes, Gent. Steward of the Manors of Framlingham and Saxted, in the year 1712, and remains in the Collection of John Revett, of Brandeston-Hall, Esquire, who very generously permitted the editor to make a Transcript from it, for this occasion, to whom he begs leave to present his most grateful acknowledgments.

‘ Another copy of the preceding MS. was presented by Mr. Hawes, to the Master and Fellows of Pembroke-Hall; a third, (on the credit of two respectable Gentlemen) is said to be in the Publick Library at Cambridge; and a fourth, in the Collection of the Marquis of Hertford.

‘ Mr. Hawes derived much information from the Records and MSS. at Pembroke-Hall, and was also greatly assisted in his researches, by the liberal communications of the Rev. Dr. Tanner, Chancellor of Norwich, and John Revett, of Brandeston-Hall, Esq. grandfather to the present gentleman of that name.

‘ The Account of the Masters and Fellows of Pembroke-Hall, was originally begun by Matthew Wren, President of that House, afterwards Lord Bishop of Ely (see Strype's Life of Archbishop Grindal, pa. 308); augmented and continued by Mr. Hawes before mentioned; the Reverend Richard Atwood, A. M. Fellow of the College; and brought down to the year 1795, by the Rev. Dr. Turner the present Master, to whom the editor is infinitely obliged, as also for his unexpected condescension, and success with the Fellows and Scholars, in procuring for this volume, the plate containing the portrait of Sir Robert Hitcham, Knight, drawn and engraved at their expence, from the original picture in Serjeants-Inn-Hall. The patronage and encouragement, which this work has received,

received, from that respectable Body, will ever be remembered by the editor, with the liveliest sentiments of gratitude.'

Dr. Johnson has somewhere observed, that it is scarcely possible to prevent the imagination from magnifying the importance of those objects with which it has been long conversant; and when the reader is told, with great solemnity, that Framlingham is distant from the equator 52 degrees, 15 minutes North latitude, and from the first general meridian which passeth through Grattiosa, one of the isles of the Azores, 29 degrees of longitude, he may probably think that Mr. Robert Hawes, the learned Steward, was not exempted from this common foible of our nature. He will be confirmed in this opinion as he proceeds; for, in the account which is given of the lords and ladies of Framlingham, the author has contrived to interweave a large portion of the history of England; in the early parts of which he is somewhat prolix and tedious, as well as too fond of inserting monkish legends, equally incredible and uninteresting. As he advances, however, he is more entertaining and instructive; and those who delight in the records of ancient families may find their curiosity gratified, by the history of the Bigods, Moubrays, and Howards. The work certainly abounds with much curious anecdote: but, though not destitute of strength, the style is stiff and formal: it can boast few allurements to captivate the imagination, and is not always sufficiently animated to fix the attention; yet many of the incidents here related cannot be read without emotion.

Respecting Framlingham Church, the author is sufficiently copious. It appears by his account to be spacious and magnificent; and it contains some monuments of the Norfolk family, of extraordinary beauty, and in a style of architecture rather uncommon.

The work consists of 27 chapters, and the last fourteen relate chiefly to the manour; the peculiar customs of which will be little interesting to the generality of readers. As we have already observed, the volume contains a variety of matter, which is collected with great care, and indeed with minute attention. We see no reason for doubting its fidelity and accuracy; and, though the taste of Mr. Hawes was not equal to his learning, his book may be considered as a valuable acquisition by the Antiquary, and must be allowed by all to be the vehicle of much useful information.—The editor should also receive his share of commendation, for his laudable attempt to unite the cultivation of literature with its commercial pursuits.

ART. XIV. *Carmen Seculare for the Year 1800.* By Henry James Pye, P. L. 4to. pp. 43. 3s. 6d. Wright.

—“ *Meliusque semper
Proroget ævum.*”

CHECKERED with lights and shades, with sunshine and with storms, with success and with misfortune, must be the history of every country within the long period of a hundred years: but it is flattering to think that, varied as the picture has been, the eighteenth century has afforded so much real matter for eulogy; and that the *Carmen Seculare* of the year 1800 by the Poet Laureat surpasses that of 1700 by Prior, as much in the grandeur of events recorded, as in the beauty and majesty of its versification.

Horace, when singing the praises of the Augustan Age, benevolently hopes that an æra still happier for Rome would succeed: not so Mat. Prior with respect to his country, in the period which he celebrated. Indeed, he seemed to think that it would be in vain to expect or hope that Great Britain could be more great and flourishing than she was in the year 1700. His poem stated;

“ *That nothing went before so great,
And nothing greater can succeed.*”

In the first assertion he might be right; in the latter, we are happy in adding, he was not a little mistaken. This country has since manifested herself greater than she then was; and we will hope that the sun of her glory has not yet reached its meridian altitude.

It is curious to reflect on the changes of the world, and to observe how, in a series of ages, empire moves its seat! Horace*, in what is in fact a part of his beautiful *Carmen Seculare*, mentions Britain as one of the extremities to which the Roman empire extended its arms; and our Laureat, in his Ode, can speak of Britain extending her arms to the very throne of the Cæsars, to the Capitol itself, and may sing of victories obtained by British heroes on parts of the globe unknown to Cæsar and to Alexander. For naval glory, Britain at this moment stands unrivalled in history. Ocean never before sustained any thing so magnificent and so formidable.

The performance before us is truly poetical: while it displays both judgment and taste, it abounds with grand and suitable imagery; and the verse flows with graceful dignity. The picture of the century is portrayed with the skill of a master. The figures are well grouped, and, to produce effect, they are aided by a richness of colouring. Some of the likenesses, indeed, are *flattering*: but the most cynical critic

* Vid. Ode xxi. lib. i. l. 15.

must acknowledge that they are well managed. Much ingenuity is shewn in delineating certain features of the present reign, in the colouring of which some dexterity was requisite. Those parts of the history of the century which include the rebellion in 1745, and the dispute with America, which terminated in her separation from the parent state, are of this number. The canvas, however, is enriched with other subjects than those of war:—the painter records the progress of science and of the arts; and the discoveries of Cook on the Earth, and Herschell in the Heavens, are deservedly introduced:

‘ The Muses now their golden lyres
Vibrate responsive to the warbled song,
And Rapture wakes the thrilling wires;
In measur’d cadence to the sound,
Sweet flows the magic strain around,
And charms the listening throng.—
Nor do the softer arts alone,
The genial dew expanding own;
Rais’d by the Monarch’s favouring smile,
Severer Science hails the happy isle.
Mathesis with uplifted eye,
Tracing the wonders of the sky,
Now shews the mariner to guide
His vessel through the trackless tide;
Now gazing on the blue profound,
Where whirl the stars in endless round,
Beholds new constellations rise,
New systems crowd the argent skies;
Views with new lustre round the glowing pole,
Wide his stupendous orb the Georgian planet roll;
‘ Seas, where yet the venturous keel
Never plough’d the foaming wave,
Isles, the halcyon gales that feel,
Temper’d by tides the southern shore that lave,
Where smiling Peace and genial Love
Through shades perennial rove;
The bleak inhospitable plains,
Where in dread state antarctic Winter reigns,
Where never yet the solar power
Has warm’d even noontide’s sullen hour,
Shot through the frozen sky his vigorous beam,
Unbound the soil, or thaw’d the stream;
In every clime from pole to pole,
Where wind can blow, or billow roll,
Britannia’s barks the coast explore,
Waft Science, Peace, and Plenty o’er,
Till Earth’s remotest regions share
A wealthy people’s stores, a patriot Monarch’s care.’

Having adverted to the very different aspects which Italy and Britain now assume, compared with those which they presented about the commencement of the Christian æra, we shall give to our readers the Laureat's happy use of this circumstance; with his elegant conclusion, in which he expresses his wish for the return of peace, and for the union with Ireland:

• Spirits of warriors! who of yore,
By yellow Tiber's trophied shore,
Saw heap'd on rich Campania's soil,
A conquer'd world's collected spoil;
And thou, O JULIUS, whose embattled host
First shok Invasion's scourge on Albion's coast,
Say, when from CASSIBELLAN's agile car,
Flash'd the just vengeance of defensive war;
Say, did ye deem that e'er the painted race,
In distant times, your shore remote should trace,
Chase from your far fam'd towers Oppression's doom,
Restore your wasted fields, protect the walls of Rome.

• Sire of the winter drear,
Who lead'st the months in circling dance along,
May Peace and Concord claim the votive song,
That chants the glories of the rising year;
• For Albion longs around her generous brow
To bind the olive's sober bough,
Though unappall'd her laurel'd front defies
The fiery blast that flashes through the skies,—
Woing, O Peace! thy halcyon ray,
Ready she stands for war, nor shuns the ensanguin'd fray;
But on Ierne's kindred sky
She casts Affection's fondest eye.
O! as the era past saw Anna join
Each warrior nation of Britannia's line,
So may the auspicious hours that now ascend,
The sister isles in ceaseless Union blend—
While Ocean's guardian arms around them thrown,
Form to their coasts an adamantine zone;
There, proudly rising o'er the circling main,
Lord of the waves, their patriot King shall reign;
And fam'd through every clime, from pole to pole,
Long as the unfailing stream of Time shall roll,
Religion, Virtue, Glory, shall adorn
The illustrious age of GEORGE, the Monarch Briton born!

Where beauties abound, it may seem fastidious to point out little defects; we shall therefore excuse ourselves this task; yet we must be allowed to wonder that such a line should have escaped, as,

• *Boasted yet a prouder boast.*

We

We had nearly forgotten the introduction to this poem, in which the author notices the controversy respecting the commencement of the nineteenth century. He says that, at first, he was inclined to adopt the generally received opinion, that the nineteenth century did not commence till the 1st of January 1801: but that, on inquiry, he found all authority against him. He has therefore adopted the contrary opinion, and deprecates the resentment of those who differ from him.

The following is the evidence which he produces:

‘ I found that the *Secular Masque* of Dryden was performed at Drury-lane Theatre early in the year 1700; and that Prior’s *Carmen Seculare* was written for the same year, and obviously for the 1st of January. These examples were sufficient authority for me, independently of their shewing the received opinion of that time. I found also in the schedule to the act of parliament for altering the style, and which is printed in all the Common Prayer Books, these words: “ For the next century, that is, from the year 1800 to the year 1899 inclusive.”

‘ In the French *Encyclopedie*, Article *Lettre Dominicale*, we find, “ Il changera en 1800, en 1900, en 2100, &c. en un mot au commencement de chacun des siecles dont la première année n’est pas bissextile.” And again under *Cycle Solaire*, explaining the tables, it says—“ La première de ces tables sera pour le siecle qui a commencé par l’année 1600; la second pour les siecles qui commencent par les années 1700, 2100, 2500, 2900, 3400, &c.”

‘ There is yet a stronger authority, arising from the history of the institution of the Christian era, as it is usually called, though now known not to be reckoned from the real birth of our Saviour, but which makes no difference with respect to the present question.

‘ A native of Scythia, Dionysius Exiguus, so named from his stature, who exercised the function of Abbot at Rome in the sixth century, thinking it disgraceful that the Christians should reckon their years from the foundation of a city which was the seat of their persecutors, resolved to introduce a new era from the birth of Christ, which he fixed on the 25th of December, in the year of Rome 753; but to accommodate it to the Roman Calendar, he reckoned from the first of January ensuing, in the manner that he exemplified by the following table of the first century, and on which the calculation of the beginning and close of the century just commenced in the table in our Common Prayer Books is founded.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56
57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75
76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94
95	96	97	98	99.	—													

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1800.

IRELAND.

Art. 15. *Speech of Patrick Duigenan, B.L.D.* in the Irish House of Commons, Wednesday, Feb. 5, 1800, on the Subject of an Incorporating Union between Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright.

THIS animated and eloquent politician, with whom our readers are already acquainted, here answers the principal objections which have been started against the *Union*, by the Partizans of "Things as they are;" concluding his powerful oration by a very striking display of the dreadful consequences which, in his strong apprehension, must attend the non-compliance of Ireland with the proffer of National Incorporation with Great Britain. The picture is so horrid, that we shall not attempt to copy it; chusing rather to refer to the original, as here exhibited.—In the following paragraph, the author takes leave of his auditory, with an assertion of his integrity, with regard to his own views on the subject of this address:

'WE HAVE NOW OUR CHOICE; whether we will rush on our own ruin, or embrace with joy the measure of an INCORPORATING UNION, the sure pledge of national Happiness, Prosperity, and Security. Unconnected as I am with the Government, or its Ministers, both in England and Ireland, and attached to it only as a good and loyal subject, in spite of clamour and faction, I must express my sincere wish that the Nation may adopt the latter measure. I have long since made my choice;

*'Non ardet Civium prava jubentium
Mente quatit solidâ.'*

Art. 16. *Union or Separation.* Written some Years since by the Rev. Dr. Tucker, Dean of Gloucester, and now first published in this Tract, upon the same Subject, by the Rev. Dr. Clarke, Secretary for the Library and Chaplain to his R. H. the Prince of Wales. With an Appendix on the Political, Commercial, and Civil State of Ireland. 3d Edition. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1799.

This is the tract to which we imperfectly alluded in our last Review, p. 199. We were misled by the sameness of the title-page, to confound Dr. Clarke's tract, [now, for the first time, before us] with that of Mr. R. Farrel, formerly reviewed: but we are now set right by a perusal of Dr. C.'s publication, for a copy of which we are obliged to the courtesy of the respectable author.—It is a valuable production:—but it is needless for us to recommend it to our readers, after the praise so justly bestowed on it in the House of Lords, March 19, 1799, as "containing more sound sense, more information, and more knowledge of the world, than volumes which have been written on the subject,"—that of the Union, &c.

Art.

Art. 17. *Political, Commercial, and Civil State of Ireland.* By the Rev. Dr. Clarke, Chaplain to the Prince of Wales. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1799.

In this tract, the views, estimates, statements, and conclusions, of the ingenious writer, all terminate clearly in favour of an incorporate union of the sister islands; and his arguments in general well deserve the attention of every impartial reader.

Art. 18. *The Speech at length of Henry Grattan, Esq. in the Irish House of Commons, against the Union with Great Britain.* 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1800.

Mr. Grattan's determined hostility to the new political arrangements between the sister islands is sufficiently known to the world. In his oratorical exertions, he is usually declamatory; in this speech, however, he is more than commonly argumentative:—in either mode, it must be acknowledged by all parties, he is a formidable antagonist. He is still, with characteristic consistency, hostile to the grand proposition; declaring, in the concluding sentence of this publication, that 'were he expiring on the floor,' he should 'beg to utter his last breath, and to record his dying testimony.'

Art. 19. *A Narrative of what passed at Killala, in the County of Mayo, and the Parts adjacent, during the French Invasion, in the Summer of 1798.* By an Eye-witness. 8vo. pp. 148. 2s. 6d. Dublin printed; London reprinted for Stockdale. 1800. Another Edition, 8vo. pp. 182. 3s. 6d. Wright.

This narrative is evidently the production of the Bishop of Killala; who assigns the following reason for his having undertaken the task, viz:

'As I know that inaccurate accounts of remarkable events must at length be taken for true, and be adopted by the historian if he is not supplied with better, I feel myself drawn, against my liking, by the very imperfect narratives I have yet seen of what passed at Killala, while foreign and domestic enemies possessed that town, in the summer of 1798, to state as much as fell under my observation at that critical period.'

His Lordship's account is so very circumstantial, that it cannot but prove particularly interesting to the generality of readers; especially to the inhabitants of that part of the country in which the incidents here recorded actually occurred. The relation will not fail also to engage the attention of many readers in this kingdom; who will be pleased with the prudence, moderation, and candor manifested by the very reputable narrator towards the different parties, on this difficult occasion,—invaders and all.

The French troops left at Killala, exclusive of the Irish insurgents who joined them, amounted only to about 200. The officers quartered themselves on the good Bishop and his family; who entertained these unwelcome guests with perfect hospitality. Their stay at Killala was about a month; when they were obliged (General Humbert, with the main body, not being near enough at hand to reinforce them,) to surrender to a division of the English army.

Art. 20. *An Examination into the Principles contained in a Pamphlet, entitled the Speech of Lord Minto, with some Remarks upon a Pamphlet, entitled Observations on that Part of the Speaker's Speech which relates to Trade.* By the Right Hon. Barry, Earl Farnham, 8vo. pp. 61. Dublin. 1800.

This respectable nobleman has had the hardihood to enter the lists against so powerful an antagonist as Lord Minto, whose much applauded performance we lately reviewed *;—and the combatants are not very unequally matched:

“When Greek meets Greek, then comes the tug of war!”

The patriotic champion of Ireland attacks his adversary on all the principal points of this eager conflict of opinions and views:—but although the onset is vigorous, all is fair and liberal in the deportment of the combatants—indeed, on the part of Lord Minto, the contest is not yet become personal. As in the very advanced stage of this great national controversy, it is not for us to venture into the pith and moment of the argument, we trust that our readers will rest satisfied with the following transcript of Lord Farnham's concluding summary of the principal ramifications of this question.

“The measure which has been under consideration is so momentous in its consequences, and so complicated in its nature, that it requires the most attentive investigation. I have endeavoured to examine it in its various ramifications, and to view it in its different bearings. I have particularly attended to your Lordship's position, that the *only mode* of connexion which can remove the *evil of separation*, or confer the *benefit of Union*, is a *perfect identity* of government. This you lay down as the *criterion* to determine whether such Legislative Union ought to be formed between these two nations. For this purpose I have examined the nature of the connexion intended to be formed, agreeable to the outlines laid before his Majesty by the Parliament of Great Britain, from which it clearly appears, that if such connexion shall take place, every distinctness in revenue, taxation, and expediture now subsisting between the two kingdoms will continue, and consequently, that they will not be thereby *identified*. I therefore consider myself justified by your Lordship's authority in asserting, that such Union ought not to be adopted; it has been shewn, that the great object of the minister in the pursuit of this measure, is to acquire the command over the purse of Ireland. This will be procured by the Union, through the immense majority of British members in the united Parliament. Should an Union take place, Ireland will be chargeable with a proportion of the expences of the empire, her own sinking fund, and *at least* the interest of her own debt. Taxes must necessarily be laid on for providing for such expences which shall extend to *that kingdom* only, they will be imposed *nominally* by the united Parliament, but *actually* by the majority of British members in such Parliament. Of the taxes thus *confined* to Ireland in their operation, those British members will not feel the pressure, nor will either *they* or *those whom they represent* be in any sort affected by them. By the Constitution, the power of taxation is lodged in those who are to pay them, *the people*; this arrangement

* See M. Rev. June, p. 217.

furnishes

furnishes a security, that such power shall not be improperly increased, but that constitutional check will here be *undermined*, and the *people of Ireland* will be taxed by the *representatives* of another people, who do not *participate* in the burthens they impose. Although unaccustomed to write, I have ventured to lay my thoughts before the public, in the plain language of common sense upon that momentous question, which must determine whether Ireland shall continue to enjoy a free Constitution, or become a province of Great Britain. I shall now with all due respect take my leave of your Lordship, relying upon the good sense of my Countrymen, that they will resist this ruinous measure.

‘ FARNHAM.’

Lord Farnham modestly alludes to his not being much in the habit of writing. We see no occasion for any apology on this head, though we have observed some slight inaccuracies: but they are lost in the vast importance and interest of the subject, and in the spirit and ardour of the investigation.

AGRICULTURE, &c.

Art. 21. *An Answer to Lord Somerville's Address to the Board of Agriculture, on the Subject of Sheep and Wool, on the 14th of May, 1799:—or to such Part of it as relates to the Substitution of English for Spanish Wools, in the Manufacture of Superfine Cloths.* 4to. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

Art. 22. *Reply to a Treatise called an Answer to the President's Address to the Board of Agriculture on the Subject of Sheep and Wool, &c. &c.* 4to. 1s. Nicol.

Uniformity of opinion is no more to be expected in trade than in religion; we must therefore allow clothiers, as well as doctors, to disagree. The author of the *Answer* to Lord Somerville's Address declares himself to be engaged in a woollen manufactory of considerable extent; and he asserts, from his own experience, that Spanish wool is necessary to the manufacture of the best superfines, and that the first manufacturers in the counties of Gloucester, Wilts, and Somerset, make no mixture of English with Spanish wool in their superfine cloths. He is therefore disposed to smile at the President's resolution, never again to wear superfine cloth, nor kerseymere, any part of which is of foreign growth. Independently of this, the addresser is of opinion that it would be bad policy to discourage the importation of Spanish wool:

‘ The principal fact, (he says,) which I mean to oppose to Lord Somerville's *theory*, is, that the growth of English wool is now barely sufficient for the consumption of the manufactures of the country; that no stock of English wool remains on hand from one year to the other; consequently, that every pound of Spanish wool brought into this country, and worked up in it, is so much additional employment and profit to the country.’

In answer to this, the author of the *Reply* subjoins, ‘ True! import wool from Spain; the more the better; leave not a pound in that country; but if the interest of this country be an object, export

every pound again when worked up—pay the Spaniard for the raw material, and be repaid by the Turk for it; when manufactured, he wants it; we want it not, and are fools to pay the difference of price. The manufacturer is paid his wages, and the heart of the poor gladdened alike, in either case.'

A specimen of British superfine cloth is exhibited in the margin of the *Reply*, which seems to be an excellent manufacture; and at all events we ought to encourage the growth of fine wools, that we may be as little dependent as possible on a foreign supply. Yet, with all our improvements in the breed of sheep, it may be as impossible for the Yorkshire clothier to manufacture a superfine equal to what can be made from the finest Spanish wool, as for a Norwich manufacturer to produce from his looms shawls equal to those which are imported from India. The author of the *Reply* may be right in asserting that cloths made of the best English wools are good enough for ourselves; and the *Answerer* may be equally right in saying that they will not be so fine as those which are made of Spanish wool. There will be a difference in the produce of different countries.—The *Reply* contains the whole of the *Answer*, which is discussed paragraph after paragraph.

POLITICAL, &c.

Art. 23. *Observations upon the Introduction to the Third Part of the Copies of Original Letters from the French Army in Egypt.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

These strictures are written with that ability, and that acuteness of criticism, which well entitle them to the attention of those who have perused the publication to which they refer. It is obvious that they come from the pen of no vulgar *opponent*, or unenlightened advocate for peace.

The writer of the preface here criticized, (who, it is intimated by the critic, is a well-known confidential friend of the minister,) having, in the ardour of his investigation of the materials * before him, poured out a torrent of personal invective against Bonaparte, [the trim and fashion of the day!] the remarker has given a pointed summary of the matter brought in charge against the obnoxious consul, condensed under three general heads: which we shall here introduce in his own words, when speaking of the 'magnanimous resolution of government never to pledge their hopes of peace on the sincerity of one whose course has been *fraud*,—on the *humanity* of one whose business has been *blood*,—on the *steadiness* and *consistency* of one whose element is *revolution*.'

'It will be readily allowed,' says the present observer, 'and as deeply lamented by all the real friends to *humanity*, that the business of *blood* has been, of late years, but too extensively carried on throughout every quarter of the globe. Whether Bonaparte has been so egregious a monopolist of this hateful traffic, as to have debarred the great potentates of Europe from the enjoyment of their due propor-

* The *Notes* to those materials attract also the attention of our 'observer.'

tion of it, may perhaps admit of some question. But let us inquire, who is it that proposes to put a speedy and immediate end to the further continuance of this truly abominable *business*? And who, let us also inquire, are those who receive the conciliatory proposal with an abrupt and peremptory refusal? However various may be the opinions of men with respect to the probable issue of negotiations with the present government of France, no one will maintain that there exists an utter impossibility of their terminating in such a peace, as this country would think it neither dishonourable nor disadvantageous to conclude. As to the business of *blood*, then, let Ministers seriously ask this question of themselves, to whom will the prolongation of this *bloody business* be justly attributed, to the party who proposes, or to the party who rejects overtures for peace? It would indeed be difficult to figure to ourselves that the author had been serious in stating this objection, unless it were equally difficult to guess what purpose of any other description could have induced him to bring it forward. He cannot but be sensible that a state of warfare between contending nations is, in its essence, and unhappily must be, of necessity, a business of *blood*. There can be no mode in which belligerent parties can pursue hostilities, which can exempt them from being engaged in it; he therefore must surely be gifted with an uncommon portion of ingenuity, must be master of some curious secret in diplomacy, hitherto undiscovered, who can devise the means of entering into negotiation, and concluding peace with an enemy, against whom the charge brought against Bonaparte may not be with equal justice urged, namely, that "his business has been *blood*." If, as in the former instance, we should consider how far an ally might be implicated in a charge brought against an enemy, and urged as an invincible obstacle to all negotiation, it will seem extraordinary that the author should not have adverted to the possibility of his being supposed to allude to the character of Marshal Suwarrow rather than that of Bonaparte, when he inveighs with so much feeling and sensibility against the inhumanity of one—whose business has been—*blood*.

The foregoing short extract will sufficiently intimate to our readers, what entertainment and instruction they may expect from the spirit and tendency of this reprehension of the ingenious author of the *Prefatory Introduction* to the 3d part of the intercepted papers:—of which we made due mention in our Review for February: see *Catalogue*.

Art. 24. *Substance of the Speeches of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, on his Majesty's Message for declining to treat at present with France; and his Objections to an Inquiry into the late Expedition to Holland. With a Preface, touching briefly on the State of Affairs.* 8vo. 2s. Chapple, Pall Mall.

Those who read publications of this class, with a view to information and the knowledge of real business, will generally be gratified by the speeches of Mr. Dundas; which, if not extremely eloquent, may perhaps be deemed something better.

The two orations, which we have now been perusing, have given us considerable satisfaction with regard to the subjects to which they respectively

respectively relate ;—though we are not yet completely convinced as to the policy which dictated the answer that has been given to the overture from France respecting peace.

The speeches here printed in the pamphlet-form are introduced to the public by a Preface, from the pen of some zealous friend, whose high compliments to Mr. D. however justly founded, are greatly heightened by a profusion of the flowery ornaments of eloquence, and apparently by some exaggeration of party attachment. The style reminds us of the writer of the *Introduction, &c.* noticed in the preceding article ;—“ *Alter et idem*” could not but occur to us on this occasion.—In this encomiastic preface, the writer has introduced the following panegyrical compliment to the character of Mr. D., a transcript of which will probably be acceptable to many of our readers :

“ His family have, for ages, been so much distinguished at the Scotch Bar, for their eloquence, as to obtain the highest honours in the Law there, that the Sovereign could bestow. But Mr. Dundas, independent of all family connection, has risen, like Mr. Pitt, to all his well-earned honours, entirely by the force of his own sterling abilities. Although bred to the Bar, and practising long at the Bar, he betrays nothing of that dry, petty precision of the subtle word-twisting pleader ; but displays all the liberal and manly eloquence that can spring from a great mind ! By a sort of intuition, he sees, in a moment, the true point of view of the most difficult question : yet, with this perceptive faculty, he gives his opinion, unadorned with any other gew-gaw of language, than that which ought to adorn the lips of a plain but accomplished gentleman—whose aim is to be clearly understood, that he may convince by truths ; not that he may confuse, by beautiful but fallacious tropes ; in order to mislead the Nation from the true and only point in which any great question ought to be viewed. With all this plainness, clearness, and closeness of reasoning, however, he has a vast command of humour.—But he seldom uses it. When he does, it is always in the player’s phrase, sure to tell ! Besides, he spontaneously throws it out, not in a sardonic smile ; but in the most good-humoured, liberal laugh : it offends no one, and pleases every one. He has, too, those OPEN, and GENEROUS, and RICH QUALITIES OF THE HEART ; that men of all parties admire his CANDOUR, and esteem his CONDUCT. He has ever acted OPENLY, and BOLDLY, for the HONOUR OF HIS KING ; and for the TRUE INTERESTS of his COUNTRY. He has given his ABLE and his MANLY support to the admirable administration of Mr. PITT, during a War which has CONVULSED SOCIETY !—A War which has almost, in the words of SHAKESPEARE, “ *Shook our Isle from its propriety* !”

Art. 25. *The Speech (at length) of the Hon. C. J. Fox, against the Address to his Majesty, approving of the Refusal to enter into a Negotiation for Peace with the French Republic. With a List of the Minority.* 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1800.

Although the substance of Mr. Fox’s Speech, on the above memorable occasion, has been already detailed in the news-paper *Reports* of

of Parliamentary Proceedings, there are doubtless many readers who will wish to see a complete edition of it, in the present form. The sentiments of this distinguished watchman of the State are always regarded by *both parties*, however they may *figure* in the Book of Numbers.

Art. 26. *The Question stated, as it respects Peace and War.* 12mo.

1s. Crosby, &c. 1800.

The writer treats this most important subject with perfect fairness, and with as much ability as we can expect to see displayed in so small a compass. He strongly inclines to decide the great and highly interesting question in favour of an immediate pacification: but, still, after what appears to be a most impartial statement, he leaves the *great conclusion* to the candid judgment of those intelligent persons who are sincere well-wishers to this country; and for whose assistance he has composed this brief but judicious arrangement of the reasons that may be urged by the opposite parties, *pro* and *con.*, with respect to the expediency of a pacific negotiation, at the present critical moment.

Art. 27. *Peace or War! which is the best Policy?* By Peter Brady Cross, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. 1s. Bickerstaff. 1800.

Mr. Cross's "*Voice is for War* *," and the arguments by which he supports his decision well merit our attention.—He does not contend, like some of our hot-headed zealots, for an eternal war with, or a total extermination of, the French nation. He chiefly insists that 'the best and the only policy which our government can adhere to, is to reject all offers of an immediate pacification, and to wait until the issue of the late Revolution is ascertained and identified.'—The author writes in an animated style, and argues vigorously: but we remarked a few passages in which we thought that his partiality towards one side of the question (we need not say *which*,) ran away with his judgment; especially in those instances in which he repeatedly expresses his contempt for the *Grand Consul* of France, whom he styles a 'Military Coxcomb,' from whose usurped elevation no stability can be expected. Mr. C. may be right in his *distrust*: but there are men who have, probably, more personal knowledge of Bonaparte than this writer can have obtained, and who do not think so lightly of his abilities and character: but we mean not to be the panegyrists of the Corsican Hero.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 28. *The Anatomy of the Gravid Uterus.* With practical Inferences relative to Pregnancy and Labour. By John Burns, Surgeon in Glasgow. 8vo. pp. 248. 5s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1799.

In this treatise, the principal facts respecting pregnancy and parturition are detailed according to the succession of causes from which they arise. The author is generally accurate, though sometimes

* Sempronius in Addison's Cato.

rather

rather diffuse in his manner of expressing himself. To be accurate is indeed all the merit to which a writer on this subject can pretend, since novelty is not to be expected. The only passage, which has struck us particularly, is one which regards the practice of bringing on premature labour in deformed subjects:

‘ When the pelvis is so small, that a child, at the full time, cannot pass through it alive, it has been proposed to induce premature labour, about the seventh month, when the child was smaller. But this is an operation which is very seldom advised, until, by the experience of a former labour, it has been demonstrated, that the woman could not be delivered without the crotchet, or lessening the head of the child. When this is ascertained, the practice is most undoubtedly proper, and ought always to be had recourse to; because it is in itself safe, with regard to the mother, and gives a chance of life to the child *, who must be inevitably destroyed, if the head be lessened, or the crotchet applied. When we have agreed to perform this operation, we may employ the mechanical irritation of the os uteri. If this be not sufficient, the puncture of the membranes always will produce the effect.’

In the management of flooding, the author has not taken notice of the efficacy of digitalis; which has been strongly recommended in Dr. Ferriar’s treatise on the properties of this plant, in uterine hæmorrhages of the active kind. From some facts which have lately come under our observation, it appears that this remedy offers a most useful resource in cases of this nature, which were formerly very intractable.

Mr. Burns begins and ends his performance by strongly inculcating the necessity of an accurate knowledge of the anatomy and physiology of the gravid uterus, for those who practise midwifery. In this we perfectly agree with him: but we cannot join in his censure of Dr. Hunter’s splendid work on the same subject.—However useful Mr. Burns’s essay may prove, as a manual, a great part of it would be unintelligible to the student, without the assistance of large and correct prints. Dr. Hunter performed excellently all that he intended; and from the study of his book, it is not difficult for an attentive practitioner, with the assistance of common writers, to deduce every material fact relating to practice.

Art. 29. *Observations on the diseased and contracted Urinary Bladder, and frequent painful Micturition; with some Cautions respecting the Use of the Caustic Bougie in the Treatment of Strictures in the Urethra.* To which are added, *Observations on the Schirro-contracted Rectum.* By John Sherwen, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1799.

These observations are correct and sensible, but offer nothing new; excepting a proposal for a mode of applying caustic, in strictures of the urethra, which we shall extract for the reader’s information:

‘ By macerating a longer or shorter time in hot water, a bougie or urethral probe made of polished whalebone will acquire any degree

* * The Marechal Duc de Richelieu was born in the sixth month of pregnancy.’

of

of softness and pliability that may be required; and, as I have already observed in my treatise on the *schirrous rectum*, will adapt itself to the natural curvature of the passage without being ever liable to break; and, since it contains no wax nor unctuous ingredient, must be much less liable to stimulate the *urethra* than the common bougie, and cannot easily be impaired in its properties. The extremity of such a bougie is to be of the common thickness, and the point should have a small depression, to the bottom of which a little adhesive plaister, or any other viscid substance, may be applied; after which, let it be lightly touched with a thin coat of powdered lunar caustic, which will be perfectly secure; and the operator will thus have it in his power at any time to convey the precise quantity which he wishes to apply at once, from a quarter of a grain to a grain, without the smallest danger of a larger being disengaged.

'This instrument has been suggested to those ingenious artists, Savigny, in King-street, Covent-Garden, and Pepys, in the Poultry, from whom they may be obtained of all sizes; and, by their assistance, I expect very soon to produce a hollow bougie of the same substance preferable to any other for the purpose of a flexible catheter, applicable in some cases to the discharge of thin *faces* through the contracted *rectum*.'

The observations on the schirro-contracted rectum, having already appeared in the transactions of a medical society, require no particular notice from us at present.

Art. 30. *A further Statement of the Case of Elizabeth Thompson*, upon whom the Cæsarean Operation was performed in the Manchester Lying-in Hospital; in addition to that published by Mr. Wood, in the Memoirs of the Medical Society of London, Vol. V. By Charles White, and Richard Hall, Men-Midwives Extraordinary, George Tomlinson, and John Thorp, Men-Midwives in Ordinary, to that Charity. 4to. pp. 7. Printed at Manchester. 1799.

This farther account of an unfortunate operation, to the performance of which we had occasion to advert in reviewing the last volume of the Memoirs of the Medical Society, (see p. 276-7, of this Review,) differs in some important particulars from the narrative published by Mr. Wood. That gentleman had imputed the gangrenous appearances, to which he ascribed the death of the patient, to the concussion which she must have undergone during a conveyance of nine miles over rough roads, in a common cart. This assertion is contradicted by the present statement; and we are now told that the patient was 'placed on a feather bed, which was slung with cords, in imitation of a hammock.' As this variation in the evidence impeaches Mr. Wood's accuracy, we are surprized that the sources of the mistake, or the means of its detection, have not been pointed out.

It is with great reluctance that we mention one or two other observations, which have occurred to us during the perusal of this paper: but having judged it necessary to declare our sentiments respecting the fatality of this operation, in order to prevent (as far as we could) the improper sacrifice of life, we feel ourselves obliged to maintain our consistency.

'The

‘The plan laid down for the operation,’ it is said, ‘was to pay no regard to the epigastric artery, as it could be of no consequence in a large wound, to men accustomed to perform operations, and who knew the use of the needle and tenaculum.’ If we be to understand from this sentence, which is not correctly expressed*, that the division of the epigastric artery was considered as an event of no importance to the operator, we believe that the opinion will be regarded as very new and uncommon. The hazard of incurring a discharge of blood into the cavity of the abdomen has hitherto been deemed very great.

Another dangerous and unjustifiable opinion is advanced respecting wounds of the uterus:

‘The uterus is an organ, which is not absolutely necessary to life, since many animals have been known to live after it has been taken out. *Ætius* and *Paulus Ægineta*, say, that, they have known even women recover, when the uterus had been extirpated on account of an inversion, and the same is mentioned by *Paré*. A very interesting case of this kind is related by Professor *Wrisberg* of *Gottingen* (*Com. Soc. Reg. Sc. Gott.* tom 8). *Mary Dorothy Ude* was delivered by a midwife of her first child on the 5th of June, 1780, who used so much violence in attempting to bring away the placenta, that she inverted the uterus, and immediately afterwards cut it away with a knife, exactly in the part where it is connected with the vagina. The poor woman was greatly endangered by the hemorrhage, but recovered completely. In September 1786, the aperture, which before that time would admit a finger, was become almost closed.’

When we read this passage, we could not help repeating the well-known adage of *Hobbes*; that “if reason be against a man, a man will be against reason.” If every idle story be admitted as authority, whether incorrectly stated, or purposely disguised, or, as in the case of the German professor, resting on the very questionable evidence of the patient herself, the multiplication of error must be infinite. Thus, to palliate the failure of a favourite experiment, the plainest rules of practice are to be contradicted, and the uniform experience of British accoucheurs is to be evaded, by explanations which do not carry conviction to our minds. We still retain our opinion that this patient died of the *Cæsarean* operation; and we most earnestly deprecate the prosecution of attempts so alarmingly unsuccessful.

Art. 31. *Remarks on some of the Opinions of the late Mr. John Hunter, respecting the Venereal Disease.* By *Henry Clutterbuck*, Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 72. 1s. 6d. Boosey. 1799.

Among the extraordinary qualifications possessed by the illustrious writer whose opinions are here attacked, perspicuity of expression was not to be enumerated. From the involved construction of his sentences, an apparent obscurity often arose; and his desire of correctness, in distinction, sometimes betrayed him into a perplexing diffuseness. The present writer has fastened on some of these unfortunate passages, and has treated them with considerable severity. We are not ad-

* We observe many grammatical errors through the whole paper.
vocat

vocates for Mr. Hunter's peculiar notions: but we think that Mr. Clutterbuck has pushed his attack too far, in the practical inferences which he draws from Mr. H.'s theories. The slight method of exhibiting mercury in venereal complaints, which has been so fashionable, and which is justly blamed by Mr. Clutterbuck, cannot be fairly imputed to Mr. Hunter's doctrines. It was derived from the practice at Montpelier, which was opposed to the old inhuman mode of salivation; and which, like most reforms, was carried too far, in the first effervescence of zeal. The desire of curing quickly and agreeably has certainly rendered some practitioners, in this country, too easily satisfied with the first impression produced by mercury, on the most troublesome symptoms of lues: but this culpable trifling results from the unsteadiness of the patient, in some cases, as well as from improper complaisance in the practitioner. It is an act of great injustice to impute the bad practice of ill-informed men, who probably never read the best works of their time, (or who may have read without understanding them,) to the doctrines of the enlightened writers of the age.—The many excellent practical observations, which are to be found in Mr. Hunter's book, have justly received more attention from the faculty, than his ill-expressed and probably sometimes ill-conceived theories.

Art. 32. *A few Practical Remarks on the Medicinal Effects of Wine and Spirits*; with Observations on the Economy of Health: intended principally for the Use of Parents, Guardians, and others intrusted with the Care of Youth. By William Sandford, Surgeon to the Worcester Infirmary. 12mo. pp. 152. 2s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

As these remarks are professedly written in a popular manner, and as no pretence to novelty is urged by their author, our critical proceedings concerning them must be very short. We think that Mr. S. would have rendered more service to those whom he addresses, if, instead of running through the common-place declamation which has become so familiar to the public on this subject, he had attempted to settle the relative terms of temperance and intemperance; and to determine what habits require strict abstinence from fermented liquors, and what others become diseased if they be not supported by generous diet, and moderate quantities of wine. These are questions of the utmost importance in this inquiry; in discussing which, Mr. S. would have been better employed than in giving a very slight sketch of the Brunonian system, which is certainly an object of little consequence to 'Parents and Guardians.'

On the whole, we fear that this gentleman will scarcely succeed in his design of banishing the use of fermented liquors: but he has a powerful auxiliary in the Minister's new system of finance; a system which bids fair to reduce us all to the *thin potation* for which this author is so strenuous a champion.—It is therefore not ill-timed, to begin to abuse those grapes which will soon be out of our reach.

Art. 33. *Hints on Temperance and Exercise*. Shewing their Advantage in the Cure of Dyspepsia, Rheumatism, Polysarcia, and

certain Stages of Palsy: By J. Tweedie, Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 56. 2s. 6d. Williams. 1799.

This author informs us, in his preface, that he had laboured during several years under dyspeptic complaints; and that, after having tried, without relief, the various tonics and stimulants usually recommended in such cases, he was obliged at length to seek for a cure by temperance and exercise. Having re-established his health by these simple means, he gratefully conceived himself bound to recommend the observance of them to his friends, and to the public. We observe nothing in this pamphlet, however, which has not been as well, if not better said in former publications; though his design is certainly very laudable.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 34. *Emma; or the Dying Penitent.* A Poem, by Charles Letts, junior, M. L. L. S. 4to. 2s. 6d. Richardson, &c. 1799.

In an ill told story, which forms the basis of this poem, the author aims at pathos, but misses the road, and falls into absurdity. His verses, in general, are not inharmonious, but he is unskilled in the art of making the most and best of his subject.—This improbable tale of woe is his first attempt in this walk of literature. We are sorry, as his design is friendly to Virtue and Humanity, that we cannot encourage him to proceed in pursuits of this kind: but we sincerely wish that his natural abilities (for ability he evidently possesses) may be more usefully and more successfully employed.

Art. 35. *Britannia's Tears; A Vision.* By A. Peterkin. 4to. 1s. Hurst. 1800.

By adding one pompous epithet to another, a sonorous line may be produced: but with the march of the syllables the sense also should advance; and the poet ought not to allow himself in the idle association of a multitude of words to express one idea. Mr. Peterkin will thank us, no doubt, for this friendly hint; since, in the very first line of the poem, he has brought together two substantives, one adjective, and one verb, to excite a single idea:

'Tenebrious gloom obscur'd the dismal night.'

Now the sense of this line expressed in prose is

Dark darkness darkened the dark.

Other defects of the verbal and grammatical kind occur in this short poem, which ought not to be tolerated in verse.

Mr. P. is not destitute of imagination, and might improve if he would remember that sense and language ought never to be sacrificed in order to make a line or a rhyme. Why he has clothed Britannia in 'a pale straw-colour'd robe,' we cannot imagine; he might as well have made her a present of one of the new-fashioned straw bonnets: but, if he has not succeeded at her toilette, he makes her pray very prettily:

‘ O dove-eyed Peace ! she sigh’d—celestial Fair !
 When mov’d with tender pity, wilt thou deign
 To listen to thy suppliant’s ardent prayer,
 And bless my sons with thy benignant mien ?
 Too long, alas ! the ruthless god of war,
 Has over Europe held his iron sway,
 Too long resistless, drove his sanguine car
 O’er fields of slaughter, ’mid the dread affray.’

The failure of our late expedition to Holland is lamented : but the judgment, bravery, and humanity of the Duke of York are highly extolled ; particularly the latter quality, as exemplified in refraining from exposing his troops to wanton carnage, when the object of the expedition was frustrated.

Art. 36. *Ballad Stories, Sonnets, &c.* By George Davids Harley, Comedian. Vol. I. Small 8vo. pp. 111. 4s. Boards. Dilly, Miller, &c. 1799.

These little pieces, moulded to the transient fashion of the day, will be read with pleasure by the admirers of the Ghost-stories, minute descriptions, and tender conceits, which the complaisance of our age styles poetry. If the verses of some fashionable novels (the Monk, for example,) were the standard of excellence, Mr. Harley would take high rank among our poets ; and in saying this we shall perhaps gratify his utmost ambition. His productions, indeed, are not framed for the severe Critical Court ; they seem to proceed from a mind full of sensibility, but incapable of much labour, and too easily satisfied with its first ideas. The jury to which Mr. H. would choose to submit his verses would be very different from our grey-headed corps, which refers perpetually to the highest models of excellence. *Virginibus puerisque canto* should be this author’s motto, if he have ever scraped acquaintance with the tender Roman bard. The simplicity of his pieces, however, would have been more attractive, if he had imitated less ; the fashionable affectation of simple diction is more disgusting than the over-refinement of the last age.

We shall extract one of the Ballad Stories, which affords rather a favourable specimen of the author’s abilities.

‘ His father hung on Tyburn tree,
 His mother too, transported she !
 A thief and an impure ;
 With shoeless feet, and houseless head,
 For one poor bit of mouldy bread
 Begg’d little BILLY MOOR.

‘ But BILLY begg’d in vain—for he,
 Poor guileless heir of infamy !
 Where’er he sought relief,
 Heard nothing but—(from door to door)
 “ Begone ! you bastard of a w—e !
 Out, out, you little thief !”

‘ The blighted bud its head declin’d,
 Unfed—he “ dwindl’d, peak’d, and pin’d ;”

- He had no heart to live.*
 He rost not from the cold wet stone,
 But view'd with thankless eye the bone,
 Or mite, the stranger give.
- ' An honest Tar, and fresh from sea,
 With heart just where it ought to be,
 Thus hail'd young BILLY MOOR :
 " What cheer my lad ? Misfortune's gale
 Hath torn, I see, thy tatter'd sail,
 And thou art wreck'd and poor ! "
- ' The simple boy his story true
 Told with a blushing sweetness too,
 Then heav'd the heart-sick sigh !
 " But God is good, though man's unkind !
 Pass on—my sufferings never mind,
 He soon will let me die. "
- ' Jack's heart, with manliest feeling yearning,
 More than his purse in pocket burning,
 And that for once was cramm'd ;
 First wip'd the spray from either eye,
 " Die ! messmate, " was the tar's reply,
 If thou dost—I'll be d—d !
- " Bear up ! I have thee safe in tow,
 I'll fit thee strait to face the foe,
 And cope with death, d'ye see ! "
 He had him rigg'd—the next spring-tide
 (His locker full, and well supply'd)
 Bore BILLY MOOR to sea !
- ' There, there the boy, with grateful heart,
 Applauded play'd his little part,
 And scorn'd to flinch or run ;
 But oft would bless the happy day,
 From shame and famine snatch'd away,
 To serve Jack Mainmast's gun !
- ' Jack too beheld with buoyant pride
 The little outcast's courage try'd,
 And time proclaim him man ;
 And felt, (blest sense !) when anguish sighs,
 What 'tis to bid the sufferer rise,
 And do what good we can. "

We cannot be surprized that a writer of Mr. Harley's professional habits, accustomed to " catch the living manners as they rise," should be betrayed into the false taste of the moment : but we may be allowed to express our regret that other persons, who have a free choice of studies, should have set the example of a mode of writing which, in Dr. Johnson's words, is imitable by " many men, many women, and many children. "

Art. 37. *Peter not infallible!* or a Poem, addressed to Peter Pindar Esq. on reading his *Nil Admirari*, a late illiberal Attack on the Bishop of London; together with unmanly Abuse of Mrs. Hannah More. Also Lines occasioned by his Ode to some Robin Red-breasts in a Country Cathedral. By the Author of Gleanings from Thomson, or the Village Muse, &c. 4to. pp. 33. 3s. Chapple, Pall Mall. 1800.

The gentleman who here challenges the renowned Peter to the fight says "*I too am a Poet*:" so also may a Mite say to an Elephant, *I too am an Animal*: but as all animals are not, so neither are all poets, of the same rank; and this writer, whatever fame he may have acquired, is not qualified to measure a lance with Peter Pindar. In our opinion, he is not apprized of the true mode of conducting warfare against this modern satirist. In our sportive strictures on the *Nil Admirari*, we endeavoured, by using the poet's own weapons, to parry the force of the stroke aimed at the respectable objects of his satire; and to shew that he who strives to raise a laugh unfairly should be laughed-at in return. This is the way of dealing with the facetious Peter. His light troops are not to be overtaken by heavy armed cavalry; and he is too agile to be knocked down by the pole-ax of a carcase butcher. Peter certainly is *not infallible*, nor invulnerable: but he is invincible by clumsy weapons. He has not given his reasons for denying that Mrs. H. More was the author of the work on Female Education: but certain passages he had a right to lash, if he deemed their severity reprehensible; and as a poet he may be allowed to stand forwards the energetic advocate of the poets. He may also, in the fervor of his indignation, pronounce that Mrs. More's "prose is very bad:" but such unfounded censure will do no injury to her literary reputation.

We expected, from the humorous Challenge and Complaint prefixed to this Poem, that the author meant only to bring light troops into the field against P. P.: but we were lamentably disappointed. The *Nil Admirari* is combated in blank verse; and the poet flounders in the slough of abuse instead of soaring to elegant satire. What has *Godwin* or the *New Philosophy* to do here? Should he, who chides the author of *Nil Admirari* for abuse, tell the world that *Godwin* is the first of

‘PINDAR’s lovely catalogue of saints?’

and that WOLCOT

— ‘Smiles complacent o’er his country’s tomb?’

How apt are writers to fall into the very vice which they reprobate!

That this gentleman is not equal to P. P. as a poet, the following short quotation will demonstrate:

‘Propitious let the rural Genius smile,
And favour those, whom Love hath favour’d so.
Too oft, alas! their iron-hearted lords,
Unmindful of the toilsome *horny* Hand
That lays the bed of Luxury, and gives
The bowl to sparkle, and the jest *run high*:
Too oft, alas! they nip the nuptial bud

Of bliss, just grafted from two hearts in one,
And cruel give to Poverty the Pair.*

The lines occasioned by the Ode to *Some Robin Red-Breasts, &c.* are in rhyme, and are very serious and solemn: but they do not go to the point of Peter's satire.

Art. 38. *The Polyhymnia Poetry*; original and selected. By a Society of Gentlemen. 8vo. 2s. Elegantly printed, at Glasgow, by Murdoch.

We must honestly confess that we see very little to admire in these "Candles'-ends and Cheese-parings" of Poetry * :—but, as this is only a first volume, and the authors are young beginners, they may improve in time. The collection, we understand, is to be continued annually.

Art. 39. *The Links o' Forth*; or, a parting Peep at the Carse o' Stirling; a Plaint. By Hector Macneil, Esq. Author of the History o' Will and Jean, Waes o' War, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Vernor and Hood. 1799.

This short descriptive poem is written in the Scottish dialect; in which, we believe, the word 'links' signifies the winding banks of a river. It abounds with picturesque delineations of the romantic scenery adjacent to the town and castle of Stirling; where the remains of antique grandeur have shed a pensive charm over the author's Doric verse. We subjoin a brief specimen:

- Haw still and solemn steals the gloom,
Mild awre the garden's fading bloom!
Dim sits the Bat athwart the tomb,
On leathern wing;
—Hark! what bemoan'd the slaughter'd doom
O' Scotia's King?
- 'Twas but the Dove, that woos his mate,
Regardless of the monarch's fate:
Whar, Grandeur, naw thy regal state?
—Unmark'd—unknown!
Nor sculptur'd verse records thy date,
Nor moss-grown stone!
- Yet regal pomp, and courtly show,
Oft grac'd yon castle's princely brow,
When Scotland's kings wi' patriot glow,
Delighted, woo'd
Strevlina's fertile fields below,
And winding flood.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 40. *A Laconic Epistle*, addressed to his Royal Highness the Duke of York, containing some cursory Remarks on the late Expedition. By a Military Officer. 8vo. 1s. Egerton.

* Borrowed from a famous Speech in the House of Commons.

Adulation and Flattery!—so profuse and gross, that, if the Duke of York could be supposed to read the pamphlet, the author's design would probably be defeated.

Art. 41. *The true Causes of the present Distress for Provisions; with a natural, easy, and effectual Plan, for the future Prevention of so great a Calamity. With some Hints respecting the absolute Necessity of an encreased Population.* By William Brooke, F.R.A. 8vo. 2s. Symonds. 1800.

Mr. Brooke attributes our present distress principally to the following causes. 'Monopoly of farms; the immense number of horses kept in the kingdom; the neglect in breeding cows, horned cattle, hogs, asses, and goats; the almost disuse of fish, and carelessness of our fisheries; the present method of supporting the clergy; too extensive hop grounds; neglect of orcharding, &c.'—'Exclusive of these general causes of scarcity,' says Mr. B. 'there are others that have operated in a lesser degree.—These secondary causes are, extensive parks and pleasure-grounds; the common mode of sowing grain; the extravagant manner used by the poor in dressing their meat; the ridiculous waste of straw; with many others.'—These are numerous and heavy charges against the economy of our husbandry.

The first has been the subject of much controversy. 'When the nation,' says the author, 'about thirty years ago, began to turn its serious attention to agriculture, a wrong bias took place in the mind of the public,—that it would be more for the advantage of the nation, that the small farms and cottages should be thrown into large farms; and upon this illusive idea, that the large farmer, by means of his superior capital, would work the land which he occupied, to greater advantage than the small farmer.'—'By throwing the bulk of the land into comparative few hands, opportunity is given to speculation, and evil, when on objects of the first necessity, which exceeds all calculation.' Such practices occasion more than an artificial scarcity; they are attended with great waste, by grain being frequently kept up till it is damaged and unfit for use.

The author attributes it 'to the reduction in the number of farms, that our markets are almost deprived of small stock; that is to say, fowls, geese, turkeys, pigs, &c.' The small portion of land which, on every farm, is employed for gardening, orcharding, raising small stock, providing and preparing manure, &c. is more profitably employed than the average of the other part of the land. Small farms multiply this advantage. 'By permitting farmers to hold large tracts, for want of abundance of manure on the tillage land, a very great quantity has been taken from under the plough, and thrown into pasture; consequently has been the means of a vast decrease in the growth of all kinds of grain.' Mr. Brooke regards the reduction in the size of large farms as 'indispensable to obtain an increase in the necessaries of life, as well as to provide settlements for an increased number of young farmers and cottagers, and thereby prevent emigrating from their native homes two of the most useful classes of subjects.' He recommends, instead of paying the labourer entirely with money, 'commonly spent imprudently,' that he should have a small piece of land. 'The labouring man has many hours in the

course of the year which he would gladly devote to the improvement of his small spot, and his wife and children would assist him :—and the spade cultivates the earth better than the plough.'

The great number of horses is justly mentioned as a very serious evil. 'It appears, by the minister's report, there are near one million and an half of horses in this kingdom. Those who know the expence of keeping *one* only of these beasts in good order, will surely agree with me, that five human beings could live in great plenty on the produce of the same quantity of land needful to support one horse.' Mr. B.'s arguments in favour of a more general use of oxen, in draft labour, are calculated to dispel many prejudices ; and he makes an estimate of the immense advantage which would accrue to the nation, if the number of horses were diminished by 300,000, and 500,000 oxen were substituted in their room ; 'the food necessary for the horses being quite sufficient for the oxen.'

We cannot notice every separate head : but Mr. Brooke has given such information on each, as is sufficient to prove that he has considered his subject. 'One of the worst evils,' he observes, 'not only to the nation, but to many of the individuals themselves, is the ignorance of almost all our gentlemen of large landed property, in respect to husbandry. There ought to be established seminaries for *agriculture*, at which the sons of all noblemen and gentlemen should be fixed for a certain time, and where they should be taught the practical part of farming.'

We have been rather particular in our account of this pamphlet, (and still have been restricted by want of room more than we could have wished,) as we incline to the author's opinion that '*it is bad sporting with the belly*;' and we recommend the perusal of it as containing many ideas which deserve serious consideration.

Art. 42. *The Economy of an Institution, established in Spitalfields, London, for the Purpose of supplying the Poor with Good Meat Soup at one Penny per Quart.* Principally extracted from the Papers of the Society, and published with a View to promote the Establishment of similar Institutions, in Towns, Villages, and populous Neighbourhoods. 8vo. 4d. Phillips, Lombard-street. 1799.

The benevolent institutions of soup-shops are equally to be praised for their design, and for the manner in which they are conducted. Carefulness and attention, exercised in the application of charity, are to be reckoned among the practices of economy the most productive and meritorious.—This little pamphlet explains the whole management of one of the largest of these useful institutions, and may be consulted with benefit. To shew the mode in which the soup is prepared, we give a copy of the 'receipt of ingredients from which one hundred gallons of soup are made.—8 stone, or 64 lbs. of beef, consisting of fore-quarters, clods, &c.—16 stone, or 128 lbs. of shins.—46 lbs. of split-pease.—36 lbs. of Scotch barley.—24 lbs. of onions.—8 lbs. of salt.—10 oz. of black pepper (ground).' The average expence of making, 'exclusive of rent, wages, boilers, utensils, &c. is rather more than 1½d. per quart.'

Art.

Art. 43. *Extract of a Journal of a Second Tour* from London through the Highlands of Scotland, and the North-western Parts of England. With Observations and Remarks. By Rowland Hill, A. M. late of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Minister of Surrey Chapel. 8vo. 6d. Williams, &c. 1800.

In our Review for September 1799, we paid due attention to Mr. Hill's former journal of his religious travels through the North of England, and parts of Scotland; and we stated the satisfaction which we received from the perusal of that publication, particularly from the author's continued good humour, his lively style, and the pertinence of his occasional remarks: in which he always expresses himself in a manner that shews him to be not only a pious minister of the gospel, but a man of good sense and taste.

Art. 44. *Plea for Union*, and for a free Propagation of the Gospel. Being an Answer to Dr. Jamieson's *Remarks* on the late Tour of the Rev. R. Hill, addressed to the *Scot's Society* for the Propagation of the Gospel at home. By Rowland Hill, A. M. late of St. John's College, Cambridge, &c. 8vo. 1s. Chapman. 1800.

Dr. Jamieson's objections to parts of Mr. Hill's publication were briefly mentioned in our account of the Doctor's *Remarks*, in the M. R. for December last, p. 476.—In Mr. H.'s Reply, now before us, the strictures of Dr. J. are encountered in a very masterly style.—On the whole, we think that the ingenious answerer is obliged to the good doctor for the opportunity which he has afforded him, in the present instance, for laying before the public one of the best apologies which we, at this moment, are able to recollect, for lay-preachers and itinerant preaching.

Art. 45. *The Life of Major J. G. Semple Lisle*; containing a faithful Narrative of his alternate Vicissitudes of Splendor and Misfortune. Written by himself. The whole interspersed with interesting Anecdotes, and authentic Accounts of important Public Transactions. 8vo. pp. 382. 6s. Boards. Stewart. 1799.

Of this extraordinary character, *Rumour*, "on whose tongue continual slanders ride," has so loudly spoken, that Mr. S. L. now steps forth to recount his own actions and adventures; and it is not at all wonderful that a person, whose disposition cannot be supposed to be one of those on which misfortune and disgrace sit easy, should, after having braved so many dangers, venture one *literary* campaign in his own defence.

The writer complains of the hard measure dealt to him by the law; and his complaint is in some degree sanctioned by letters written in his favor by the late Mr. Burke, and Mr. Boswell, copies of which are inserted in the narrative. In one of these letters, addressed to John King, Esq. Under Secretary of State, Mr. Burke says, "you well remember your friend, my late brother; you know that no man had a clearer head, nor a more upright heart. He had, as Recorder of Bristol, a good deal of experience in the criminal law. I have often heard him expatiate with no small indignation against the confusion which began to prevail in the criminal jurisprudence, by which the distinctive lines of offences were effaced, or at least

rendered mischievously uncertain. The confusion of fraud with felony, (a new practice,) he held to be highly pernicious; and for one, I look upon it with horror. By this means, men are entrapped by the law itself."

It is natural to feel more than an ordinary degree of concern, for the disgraces of a man whose military conduct is said to have recommended him to the notice of some of the most distinguished characters in Europe. His narrative affords an useful lesson, by shewing that talents and exertion can be of little avail to those who indulge in continued habits of extravagance. An unrestrained warmth of disposition appears, likewise, to have involved him frequently in disagreeable situations. Some portion of this intemperance occasionally appears in the language which he uses: in one instance especially, (p. 284,) in a manner which does not admit of excuse.

The author has not related his adventures in one unbroken series: his narrative contains some curious anecdotes respecting military transactions on the Continent. The observations are, in general, such as bespeak a man conversant with the world, but strongly tinged with military enthusiasm: for instance, he praises the 'godlike troops' of the King of Prussia. In drawing the character of a Russian soldier, he finishes the portrait with the following *encomium*; 'formed by nature and education for the trade of war, their minds are not estranged from the paths of obedience by those smatterings of knowledge which only serve to lead to insubordination and mutiny.'

The relation of the mutiny on board the *Lady Shore* (in which ship the author was going to New South Wales,) seems to be the most *unvarnished* account of that transaction which has yet appeared. His subsequent adventures in the Brazils are entertaining, and give considerable information respecting that country.

From among his hair-breadth escapes, we select the following adventure, in which he shewed no small share of address in eluding the fangs of the merciless catchpole.

"Sitting at breakfast, I was attacked by three of them (bailiffs). I then lived in Oxendon-street, and almost opposite to me lodged Lord (then the Hon. Mr.) Semple, [Sempill] who bore a commission in the guards: but though our names were alike, our circumstances differed widely; for he owed nobody a farthing, and I owed every body who would give me credit. As soon as these vultures of the law entered, they, with the usual etiquette, gave me a very pressing invitation to a house kept by one of them. Wishing to decline this honour, I affected much surprise, and told them they must needs be mistaken, as I was in debt to nobody. They asked if I was not Captain Semple? "Then, gentlemen," said I, "the whole is cleared up. Another Captain Semple lives in this street. I see him now," (pointing to his lodgings,) "this is not the first, nor hardly the twentieth time that I have been arrested for him. His attorneys, his duns, and his bailiffs will force me to quit this street." I added, that I was wearied with such incessant visits, and must, for my own sake, bring any illegal act before a court of justice. This puzzled the bailiffs, who, with some reluctance, went down stairs, and inquired if any other Captain Semple lived in that street. The servant told them there was, and pointed

pointed out to them the same house that I had done. This satisfied them, and I profited by the diversion made in my favour to escape—”

A head of the author fronts the title-page. In the narrative, he has announced his intention of publishing an account of the first three campaigns of the war, illustrated with maps, and plans of every remarkable movement made by the allied armies.

Art. 46. *Asiatic Researches*; or, Transactions of the Society instituted in Bengal, for inquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Asia. Vol. V. Printed verbatim from the Calcutta Edition. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Sewell, &c. 1799.

We are glad to see the English edition of the *Asiatic Researches*, in 8vo, proceeding, as we apprehend, with success; and printed with so respectable an appearance.

We forbear to particularize the contents of this fifth volume, because the principal papers in the original Oriental edition, in quarto, have all been reviewed by us as they successively arrived in Europe from Calcutta. Our account of the 4th and last volume of the original publication was given in the M. R. vol. xxvi. (1798) p. 121: where also, in a note, we announced the commencement of the octavo edition, by the London booksellers; of which the fifth and last volume is now before us.

Art. 47. *Curious Remarks on Bread and Coals*. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard, &c. 1800.

The judgment and acuteness of the writer of this production entitle his remarks to the general attention of the public, and especially of those who may have it in their power to take any steps towards remedying the grievances which are here most justly stated: particularly the unnatural and unnecessary scarcity of coals for fuel, in and around the metropolis, to a great distance.—The last-mentioned source of distress to so many thousands of the poor, perhaps *hundreds of thousands!* is an evil which we may expect will be endured with the less patience and resignation, as coals are never liable to the vicissitudes of climate and unfavourable seasons; it is of the mismanagement of *Man*, alone, that we have here to complain.—Why should the numerous poor of London, and its environs, not enjoy the common benefits afforded by the situation and happy circumstances of our island, as well as the inhabitants of Durham, &c. &c.?

On this very interesting subject of the coal-trade, as well as on that still more interesting (because more general) one of bread-corn, the public spirited remarker throws out a number of useful hints*, expressed with energy of language, and in a strain of reasoning well adapted to the urgency of the occasions.

Art. 48. *The General Apiarian*, wherein a simple, humane, and advantageous Method of obtaining the Produce of Bees, with-

* He particularly proposes that Government should take the coal-navigation into its own hands. This, however, may require much consideration.

out destroying them, is pointed out in a Series of Letters to a Friend. By J. Isaac, Secretary to the Apiarian Society established at Exeter. 12mo. pp. 108. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson. 1799.

Yorick tells us that, "when a man gets across his hobby-horse, he rides it most hobby-horsically." Now as the Apiary seems to be Mr. Isaac's hobby-horse, the reader must excuse his *getting over the ground* in his own particular way. He must not smile (we mean, unless he cannot help it) at the author's dedicating this little tract to the Apiarian Society, 'which (he says) *has the honour* of being the first establishment of the kind in the known world, and which has stood forwards in defence* of the bee;' and at his pathetic address to those who suffocate their bees over the body of the dead queen. 'Take her up—shew her to all your friends—teach them to know her distinguishing features, and be a regicide no more!'

Such *canters* must be excused; and in noticing them, we would not wish to be thought to ridicule this gentleman's humanity: but we would soberly suggest, if, as it is here stated, the life of the common bees be not more than six months long, and that of the drones only three; and if the swarm which filled a peck and a half in July be reduced in December, by a natural mortality, to the size of a quart; whether there be much difference between *deprivation*, as here recommended, and the common way of destruction by suffocation? It also seems to admit of a question whether it be not better, in order to keep up the quantity of bees in an apiary, to preserve some strong stocks, uninjured by any awkward robbing process, and to destroy the rest as expeditiously as possible, than to run the risk of weakening all the stocks by the practice of deprivation? We wish, as much as this author can do, that honey could be taken without destroying the lives of these industrious insects: but the process recommended is so difficult, and involves so much subsequent care, that we cannot flatter ourselves that it will be generally adopted; though it may not be amiss, for those who keep bees, to attend to the directions here given relative to this subject.

This treatise has the merit of brevity: but it gives no new information, of any consequence, relative to the apiary. It treats of situation and aspect—bee-houses and hives—of the different bees, and the natural duration of their lives—swarms, and hiving them—uniting swarms and stocks—deprivation, and the implements necessary for taking honey and wax, without destroying the bees—separation of honey and wax—making of mead—feeding and management—the enemies of bees:—with advice on the sale and purchase of swarms, and on the effects of the stings of bees; in which we are recommended, in case of being stung, to rub the *bee that has stung us, or any other bee, on the wound*. This is making the *body* the antidote to the *tail*.

Mr. Isaac seems to have been much indebted to Key's Bee-Master.

* Mr. Isaac does not mean, defence of the bee's person and property, but saving his life, depriving him of his ample stores, and putting him on short allowance.

Art. 49. *Thoughts on the Condition of Women*, and on the Injustice of Mental Subordination. By Mary Robinson. Second Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1799.

This is a republication of a work noticed in our Review, vol. xxix. p. 477, N. S. under the title of "A Letter to the Women of England, on the Injustice of Mental Subordination," with the fictitious signature of Anne Frances Randall. A work having been lately published at Paris, on a similar subject, Mrs. Robinson has been induced, as she tells us, to avow herself the author of this pamphlet.

Art. 50. *Sheridan and Kotzebue*. The enterprising Adventures of Pizarro, preceded by a brief Sketch of the Voyages and Discoveries of Columbus and Cortez, &c. 8vo. 5s. Hurst, &c. 1799.

Notwithstanding the hearty meal which the public have made on the Anglo-Teutonic Pizarro, the author of this pamphlet, who signs himself John Britton, seems to think that this dish of hashed meat, heated again from Dr. Robertson's History, may still be palatable. All that we can say of such a performance is that the abridgment appears to be correct.

Biographical sketches are next given of Messrs. Sheridan and Kotzebue, which are avowedly taken from a periodical publication.

As if all this compilation were insufficient, we have next an analysis of Marmontel's Incas of Peru, from which Kotzebue took the plots of his two popular dramas, the *Virgin of the Sun*, and the *Death of Rolla*. Here, indeed, our patience forsook us, and we could not avoid crying out, "Neighbour, you are tedious."

Mr. Britton's zeal, however, has carried him yet farther; he vindicates Mr. Sheridan's alterations in the Pizarro of Drury Lane against a host of critics, and is very wroth with those who do not admire them, though he is evidently unable to answer the objections.

How far his ardour might have led him, it is impossible to conjecture: but "compassion for the patience of his readers makes him finish" at length. We humbly thank Mr. Britton for his welcome, though tardy humanity.

Art. 51. *Experimental Essays, Political, Economical, and Philosophical*. By Count Rumford. Essay X. Part I. On the Construction of Kitchen Fire-places, and Kitchen Utensils; together with Remarks and Observations relating to the various Processes of Cookery, and Proposals for improving that most useful Art. 8vo. pp. 100, and 7 plates. 2s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

Man has been called, by way of discrimination, a *cooking animal*; be it so: but there is no reason that he should cook extravagantly. He must allow, with Count Rumford, that 'nothing is so disgraceful to society and to individuals, as unmeaning wastefulness.' Now the object of the Count, whose philosophy is of the really useful kind, is to shew that there is great wastefulness in the kitchen and culinary processes of Great Britain; and to recommend a system that will remedy those evils. Endeavouring to establish economy on philosophic

Josephic principles, he will recommend his thoughts to the attention of all who are not extremely ignorant or extremely prejudiced. He observes that 'all the fuel used in making water boil with violence is wasted, without adding in the smallest degree to the heat of the water, or shortening the process of cooking a single instant; and that the waste of fuel which arises from making liquids boil unnecessarily, when nothing more would be necessary than to keep them boiling hot, is enormous.' On this simple principle, he proceeds; and in order to enforce the adoption of his economical plans, he farther observes that 'the unscientific and slovenly method of cookery makes the food less savory, less wholesome and nourishing.' — 'The true reason why nourishing soups are not more in use among the common people of Great Britain is, because they do not know how good they really are, nor how to prepare them.'

COUNT R. reprobates the open kitchen-fire-places now in common use, and particularly that devouring implement called a kitchen-range. 'More fuel (he observes) is frequently consumed in a kitchen-range, to boil a tea-kettle, than with proper management would be sufficient to cook a good dinner for fifty men.' He anathematizes with equal vehemence the common appendage of the range, viz. the smoke-jack.

The Count gives descriptions, accompanied by plates, of the manner in which several kitchens are fitted up on the Continent. These cannot be perfectly understood without the engravings; though the general principles of their construction are,—that each boiler, kettle, and stew-pan, should have its separate closed fire-place; and that each fire-place should have its separate grate, and its separate ash-pit, closed by a door well fitted to its frame, and furnished with a register for regulating the quantity of air admitted into the fire-place through the grate.

The ingenious author condemns not only the open fire-place, but the connection of ovens and boilers with the kitchen-range. He advises that these should be detached, and heated each with its separate fire; and he informs us that these closed fire-places for iron ovens and roasters can hardly be made too small. 'When (says he) my roasters shall become more generally known, and the management of them better understood, I have no doubt but that open chimney fire-places, and open fires of all descriptions, will be found to be much less necessary in kitchens than they now are.—I am even sanguine enough to expect that the time will come when open fires will disappear, even in our dwelling rooms and most elegant apartments.' In this latter expectation we cannot concur with the Count. Our chimneys contribute to ventilate our apartments, and the heat from open fires is more pleasant than that which is derived from a stove coming through a flue.

Count Rumford's attention has been benevolently directed to the improvement of the cottage fire-place: but his ideas are not matured on that subject. He has however recommended the construction of cheap ovens, which may prove highly useful to the poor, and to all small families—

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 52. *Preached in the Parish Church of Clare, in Suffolk, at the Presentation of the Colours to the Military Association of that Place, June 26, 1799, by C. Hayward, Vicar of Haverhill, Suffolk.* 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

While this author deprecates infidelity, perhaps some readers may think that he almost inclines to persecution: we will presume no such thing, but allow that he presents very seasonable and useful admonitions to his associated military audience. With great propriety, he warns them not to neglect careful attention to the business and duties of their respective stations in the world; nor, while they are applauded for their spirit and the rectitude of their motives in their new capacity, to suffer themselves to be careless and indolent in other most necessary and important instances. The text, *Nehem. iv. 13. 17.* furnishes a hint of this kind, which the preacher suitably and with some animation seizes and improves.

Art. 53. *Preached in the Church of All Saints, Northampton, at the Visitation of the Archdeacon of the Diocese of Peterborough, 8th May 1799, by Christopher Hunter, B. D.* 8vo. 1s. Nicol.

The concluding paragraph of this discourse may give the reader a competent view of its scope and tendency. 'Since there are many, who through *negligence and inattention*, examine not the evidences of revelation; since there are many, whose *pride*, and whose *prejudices* attract them more strongly to difficulties than to proofs, and to objections than to the answers which have been given them; since there are many, lastly, *infatuated by vicious pleasures*, and consequently, disinclined to expect, or even to think of a future judgment: it is not unaccountable that there now exists among men so bitter an opposition to Christianity.'—Mr. Hunter has not distinguished the *love of singularity* among the causes which he enumerates; but we may suppose that to be included under the article of *pride*.

The preacher has chosen the following title for this sermon;—'*Scepticism* not separable from *Immorality*; illustrated in the Instances of *Hume* and *Gibbon*.'—How far the implication here intended, and which is farther pursued in the discourse, is perfectly just, it does not belong to us to inquire; and may not, perhaps, become any man, frail and fallible as all are, confidently to decide. If by *scepticism* be meant doubt or uncertainty on some particular subject, *that* may surely be the lot of some who not only inquire for truth, but who are also firm believers in divine revelation. It is to be lamented that two such men as *Hume* and *Gibbon*, who have proved that they were well able to entertain and instruct mankind, should have suffered themselves in any instance to mislead them; and should have appeared unfriendly, if not hostile, to the cause of Christianity: but their ill-directed labours have produced additional support to its interest.—The present sermon leads us carefully to attend to these evidences and arguments, and may therefore be read to advantage.

Art. 54. *Preached at Northleach, Gloucestershire, at the Visitation of the Rev. James Webster, LL. B. Archdeacon of Gloucester;* and

and published at his Request, and that of the several Clergy present, by the Rev. J. Hare, A.M. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1799. *Priesthood* and *Priests*, words so often re-iterated in this discourse, are not in themselves of the most grateful sound, and certainly not very congruous to the design and spirit of Christianity. Its great founder, we conceive, abrogated all such distinction respecting any particular class of men; and consecrated, in one sense, every one who receives his doctrine, *a priest*, to offer unto God spiritual sacrifices by a pious, virtuous, charitable temper and life.—Some modern voyages and travels, to advance no higher, afford us reason to hesitate concerning the assertion here pronounced with a sort of confidence;—‘Into whatever country we cast our eyes, we find priests, altars, sacrifices, holy festivals and religious ceremonies.’—Nor can we apprehend, with this writer, that the mere ceremonial or official appointments delivered to the Israelites or Jews can have any authority as to the guidance of Christians. For the wisest reasons, they were ordered for that ancient and remarkable people; and, so long as their peculiar œconomy lasted, they were undoubtedly obligatory on them as the express directions of God: but the more noble revelation of the gospel has removed them *out of the way* for ever.

Mr. Hare seems also, we must observe, nearly to confound the rites and observances of heathenish idolatry and superstition with that simplicity of worship, that sincerity, piety, and truth, which the author of the Christian faith has inculcated. Those sublime and instructive sentiments concerning God, his will, and our duty, which we have thus received, are utterly remote from all ideas and principles concerning heathen gods, heathen ceremonies, and observances:—a remark which may with great justice be applied to the Old Testament, as it certainly must to the New.—When popery was unhappily regarded as Christianity itself, rather than its enormous abuse, we are not much surprized, though we may greatly lament, that those who clearly saw its impositions and absurdities should very rashly and blameably reject both the religion itself and the system thus founded on it. The doctrine of Christ needs not the aid of human invention and parade:—yet we perfectly agree to the appointment and support of Christian ministers for general assistance and edification.

This discourse is, on the whole, very well written, and discovers some classical learning; yet, in our view, its most useful and practical part is formed by an extract from the works of Archbishop Sharpe, with which it is concluded.

Art. 55. *Delivered to the Congregation of Protestant Dissenters at Billericay*, on occasion of being excluded from the Meeting-house for professing Unitarian Principles, Oct. 21, 1798, by Richard Fry. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Conder.

This discourse proclaims the author to be a man of sense and learning, and, which is more estimable, of piety, integrity, and candour. It is remarkable that, for the greater part of his life, he had been warmly attached to the doctrine generally termed calvinistic; and it is only within a few years past that some doubts were started, which led him to a more close and diligent investigation of the subject: the consequence of which is mentioned above.

To

To the sermon, is subjoined an *appendix*, which constitutes by far the chief part of the pamphlet: it contains, 'in letters, some statements of sentiments, and a narrative of the event.'—In these letters, as also in the sermon, are reflections and remarks which demand the attention of those who are, or would be, lovers of truth in general, or of scripture-truth in particular. They concur with many other writings to prove,—frequently, alas! to little purpose,—the reasonableness, the importance, and the necessity of mutual forbearance, liberality, and charity among rational beings, and especially Christians. How far it had been adviseable for Mr. Fry to have withdrawn himself sooner; or how far it might be expedient to continue in a private dwelling his ministerial offices; these are inquiries to which our province does not extend:—though, judging from the pamphlet, we should incline to conclude (his peculiar opinions out of the question) that he is influenced by a regard to rectitude, and to benevolence.—*No shame in suffering for the truth* is the title of the sermon; and, guided by the narrative, whence our sole knowledge of the affair is drawn, we apprehend that, so far from suffering any disgrace, the author stands in a respectable and honorable point of view.

Art. 56. *Preached at the Parish Church of St. Mary in Truro, before the Governors of the Cornwall General Infirmary; on its being opened for the reception of Patients, August 12, 1799. By Cornelius Cardew, D.D.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Wallis.

A very suitable discourse, on an important and rather an extraordinary occasion; as it is somewhat remarkable that a county, so situated as Cornwall, should not have hitherto been provided with a general hospital. This desirable purpose is now accomplished; and we hope that, in various ways, its beneficial effects will be experienced. Dr. Cardew, with much good sense and pious animation, pleads with his audience for a cheerful and liberal attention to a charity which has so much to recommend it. It appears that 'the humanity and active perseverance of Lord De Dunstanville and Basset has been the chief instrument in conducting it to its present advanced state.'

Art. 57. *Delivered in the Church of Allmondbury, Yorkshire, May 16th, 1799, at the Constitution and Dedication of the Allmanns Lodge of Free and Accepted Masons; by the Rev. Richard Munkhouse, D.D.* 8vo. 1s. Hurst.

In the Review for December, 1798, p. 477, the reader will find an account of a former sermon by this author, delivered before the Lodge of Unanimity at Wakefield. In the present discourse, the Doctor avoids those masonic terms which he had before used with freedom, and offers just and solid remarks suitable and edifying to any Christian assembly.—*Let your light so shine before men, &c.* is the subject of his address. He applies the exhortation to different stations, and then more directly to the fraternity of the new lodge: he informs or reminds them, that the truly philanthropic institution, to which they belong, inculcates on them the peculiar precepts of our holy religion, and strenuously enforces its exclusive characteristic obligations;—to which he adds—'These last, being more especially connected

nected with the *secrets* of our order, can only be conscientiously discussed in the privacy and retirement of our lodges.'

Dr. M. warmly rejects the principles, or supposed principles, of 'the so much boasted lights of their brethern on the Continent.'—He inculcates an attention to morality in all its branches, and particularly loyalty to Government.—'If,' says he, 'the evangelical precept,' meaning his text, 'be allowed *generally* to refer to the characters and behaviour of Christians, I cannot but look on it as having a more especial reference to those who, like you, are formed into societies for the express purposes of advancing the glory of God, and promoting and establishing the comfort and happiness of your fellow-creatures. Your's is avowedly an institution built on the broad basis of universal benevolence.'—Again, he adds, 'The least the true brethern of the craft can do, in common gratitude for the indulgence of the legislature towards them, is cordially to support the reasonings, and to strengthen, as much as possible, the hands of Government.'

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are obliged to "A young Student" for his letter: but we advise him to desist from the vain attempt of reforming all the Iambic verses in the Tragedies, which, though they end in *trissyllables* or *quatrissyllables*, do not terminate in a *Di-iambus*.—In the *Ion*, not merely the first line closes thus — — — | but also v. 22. 65. 278. 318. 362. 366. It is unnecessary to proceed farther. Mr. Porson never intended, we may confidently assert, that his canon should be considered as relating to Iambic verses in general.—The mention of Euripides was not deemed necessary, in p. 183. The omission was by design.

Should any proper opportunity offer, of giving lists of the works of the foreign critics whom this correspondent mentions, we shall not shrink from the task:—but it is impossible to attempt to answer his queries, or to give an account of Terentianus, in the narrow limits to which this part of our work is confined.

If the "Young Student" would trust us with his address, perhaps he would not regret his confidence.

Mr. Lewis is referred to our xxist. vol. p. 66.—vol. xxiii. p. 287.—vol. xxiv. p. 319.—vol. xxvii. p. 168.—and to this number, p. 331.

A packet from America was lately brought to our publisher, but he refused to take it in, on account of the enormous postage charged on it. We imagine that our Correspondents abroad are not aware of the recent alterations in the English post-office, by which all letters and packets, delivered from on board of ship at any of the ports, are made to pay a foreign postage according to their weight.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1800.

ART. I. *A Missionary Voyage to the Southern Pacific Ocean*, performed in the Years 1796, 1797, 1798, in the Ship *Duff*, commanded by Captain James Wilson. Compiled from Journals of the Officers and Missionaries; and illustrated with Maps, Charts, and Views, drawn by Mr. William Wilson, and engraved by the most eminent artists. With a Preliminary Discourse on the Geography and History of the South Sea Islands; and an Appendix, including Details never before published, of the Natural and Civil State of Otaheite. By a Committee appointed for the Purpose, by the Directors of the Missionary Society. Published for the Benefit of the Society. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Chapman. 1799.

THE voyage to the Pacific Ocean, of which we are now to give an account, differs so much from any that have preceded it during the present reign, that it claims a distinct rank to itself. While those which were not of a public nature have been undertaken for commercial advantage alone,—in such as were fitted out under the auspices of his Majesty, discovery has been either wholly or in part the object; excepting those which were performed in order to transplant the bread-fruit tree to the West Indies. Perhaps the latter may class with the present voyage; as being equally unconnected with the advancement of science, and equally designed for ameliorating the condition of our fellow-creatures: with this singular difference, indeed, that the one was intended to confer *spiritual* and the others *temporal* benefits; the purpose of this expedition being to impart the blessings of Christianity to unenlightened savages.

The preliminary discourse contains a geographical and historical account of Otaheite, of the Society Islands, of the Friendly Islands, of Navigator's Islands, of the Marquesas, and of some others of less note; in which is collected into one 'distinct and comprehensive view, the information that was scattered through numerous printed volumes, or was attainable by means of manuscript and verbal communications.'—As 'the want of a proper guide for the pronunciation of names used by the

South Sea islanders, and the diversity of modes in which they have been spelled by writers and compilers of voyages, have long been subjects of complaint; some rules of pronunciation are given, and recommended to the reader's attention. We observe some names remarkably varied from the manner in which they appear in former accounts, particularly that of *Tupia*, who left Otaheite to accompany Captain Cook to Europe, but who died at Batavia in 1770; which is here changed to Toopāea.—In the account of Otaheite, some particulars concerning the mutineers of the *Bounty* are related; which, we believe, have not before been published.

Prefixed to the narrative, is a copy of the letter of instructions from the Directors of the Society to Captain Wilson; in which he was ordered to join the East India convoy at Spithead, and to keep company with them as far as their course lay together:—afterward, to call at the Brazils, and thence to attempt the passage round Cape Horn: but, if the winds should prove unfavourable, to bear away for the Cape of Good Hope. When arrived in the Pacific Ocean, it was recommended to attend, as much as circumstances would admit, to a resolution which passed at a general meeting of the Missionary Society; 'that a mission be undertaken to Otaheite, the Friendly Islands, the Marquesas, the Sandwich and the Pelew Islands, in a ship belonging to the Society, to be commanded by Captain Wilson, as far as may be practicable and expedient.' As many changes might have taken place in the state of the islands since the last accounts, much was left to Captain Wilson's discretion: but with directions to consult and hold frequent communication with the Committee of the Missionaries, concerning such things as related to the plans of settlement. The first and principal effort was to be made at Otaheite; which place, if the natives appeared well disposed to receive them, was to have a decided preference in the number of Missionaries to be left. A caution was given not to reserve many for the places which they last designed to visit, lest the natives there should be disinclined to their landing; in which case there would be a waste of means, as probably no alternative would remain but that of bringing them back to their native land. Capt. Wilson was to endeavour to be at Canton, on his return, not later than January 1798.

The ship being ready, on the 10th of August 1796, the Missionaries went on board, being thirty in number, six of whom were accompanied by their wives; three children likewise were of the party. Of the Missionaries, four were ordained ministers; the rest (the surgeon excepted) were mostly manufacturers, or working tradesmen. The ship's company

consisted of twenty-two persons, including the captain. In the choice of seamen, they had been select: one half of the number were communicants, and all of them zealous. The Missionary flag, which bore three doves argent with olive branches in their bills, on a purple field, was hoisted at the mizen-top-gallant-mast-head as they sailed down the river.—The spirit which animated the brethren in this undertaking will be best shewn by a short extract or two from their journals, all of which speak the same language. One says, “When taking a prospective view of the great work before us, my soul was constrained to cry out, ‘Who is sufficient for these things?’ But I was enabled to derive comfort and encouragement from the confidence that He who holdeth the winds in his fist, and the waters in the hollow of his hand, can preserve from every evil.”—Another writes, “I felt deeply when leaving my native country, and dear friends whom I loved as my life; but loving the givet of life, I trust, more than all, I went with tears of joy.”

Before they reached Spithead, the East India fleet had sailed; and it was therefore determined to wait for the sailing of the Adamant man of war, which was shortly to go with a convoy for Lisbon and Gibraltar. While they remained at this anchorage, one of the children died, and one of the married Missionaries and his wife quitted the ship.

On September the 24th the whole convoy sailed; and on the 30th their ship, the Duff, parted company, and proceeded to the Southward. They stopped at St. Jago, where they completed their water, and with difficulty procured some other refreshments. The most remarkable occurrence at this place is related in the following paragraph:

‘Though our stay was very short, our brethren on shore were not inattentive to their first object; we shall just mention, in the simplicity of the language of the reporter, what passed on one occasion: “I was meditating on the goodness of God to me an unworthy creature, and that ‘whosoever is afraid or ashamed of his word before men, of him will the Son of Man be ashamed,’ when I met a native black man, who invited me to his house. My mind was greatly impressed with the ignorance and superstition I saw; so I went with him, and found him very friendly: he spoke the English language sufficiently to be understood; I enquired what religion he was of; he told me he was a Roman Catholic. After speaking a little of their mode and manner of worship, I told him freely I feared he was wrong; that God could not be worshipped through the medium of images, pointing out the several passages of God’s word which forbid such worship; and, blessed be God, he appeared very much to give way to what I said to him; and I hope the Lord will convince him by his Spirit. Before parting from him, I desired him to read over all the

passages I had pointed out to him, for he had an old Bible, and could read a little: I begged him to compare the word of God with the sentiments he had been taught, and to pray to God without images set before him, as they are an abomination to the Lord; and there can be but one true way of worshipping him, through Jesus Christ, and through him alone. Thus, after a few more words, we parted, and I hope the labour will not be in vain in the Lord."

This individual conversion (if such it proved) of a poor creature living under a rigid Roman Catholic government, and educated in that religion, appears to be more an act of zeal than of consideration. If the convert practised what he was newly taught, he could scarcely escape being persecuted as a heretic. The greater probability is, however, that so short an instruction would not make him aspire to the character of a martyr: but there is danger that his faith might be shaken in a religion which he may still think it expedient to profess; and thus the practice of his former mode of worship, being continued with an altered faith, will become criminal,—though, while he believed in its truth, it was meritorious.

At Rio Janeiro, nothing remarkable occurred. They left that place Nov. 20, and steered along the coast to the Southward. On the 3d of December, however, the wind blowing strong from the South-west, it was determined not to attempt the passage round Cape Horn, and accordingly they bore away to the Eastward. In twelve weeks, reckoning from that time, *i. e.* on February 25th, 1797, they were in sight of the island Toobouai, in the Pacific Ocean; and on the 5th of March, the ship anchored at Otaheite.

During this passage, at a general consultation held by the Missionaries to consider on the propriety of their separating, eighteen declared their preference for Otaheite; in which number were included all the married men. Ten were for Tongataboo. Mr. J. Harris singly declared for the Marquesas: but afterward, by his persuasions, William Crook, a young man aged 21, agreed to accompany him.—According to this disposition, Captain Wilson regulated his subsequent proceedings.

Before they came to their anchoring place at Otaheite, the natives flocked about the ship in great numbers. It was Sunday; and they were astonished at the indifference shewn about the hogs, fowls, and fruit, which they had brought in abundance. The Missionaries endeavoured to make them comprehend that this was the day of the *Eatooa*, (the Divinity,) and that therefore they could not trade:—"But their women repulsed, occasioned greater wonder." Divine service was performed on the quarter-deck. "During sermon and prayer, the

natives were quiet and thoughtful; but when the singing struck up, they seemed charmed, and filled with amazement; sometimes they would talk and laugh; but a nod of the head brought them to order.'

Two Swedes, who had been part of the crew of the *Matilda*, a vessel which had been cast away in these seas in 1792, came off to the ship; and, as they could both speak English, they were serviceable as interpreters. At this time, Otoo, the king, and Pomarre, his father, had obtained the sovereignty over the whole island of Otaheite, and likewise over the island of Eimeo.—The first visitor of consequence who came to the ship was the High Priest, an aged man, named Manne-Manne; who requested the Captain to become his *Tayo*, or friend, and they in consequence exchanged names. On his next visit, he brought with him five of his wives, not one of which exceeded fifteen years old, and desired he might sleep in the cabin; and, according to the custom of the country, very cordially desired Captain Wilson, his *Tayo*, to take his choice, and could hardly persuade himself that he was serious in declining the offer.' This occasioned a long conversation about polygamy; and the arguments advanced by the Captain were 'highly approved by the ladies.'

On the 7th, some of the Missionaries and the Captain waited on the young King. 'The Captain now informed the King, that our only inducement for leaving Pretane (Britain) to come and visit them, was to do them good, by instructing them in the best and most useful things; and for this end, some good men of our number intended to settle among them; requiring on their part the free gift of a piece of land, sufficiently stocked with bread fruit and cocoa-nut trees,—that they (the Missionaries) would not on any account intermeddle in their wars;—if he consented, they would stay on the island; if not, they would go elsewhere.' It appeared doubtful whether Otoo understood this harangue; though he signified that a large house, which stood near Point Venus, should be their own, and that they might take what land they pleased.

The following paragraph will afford our readers some idea of majesty in Otaheite:

'After dinner, Otoo and his wife came off, each in a small canoe, with one man paddling: they went several times round the ship, the queen frequently baling her canoe with a cocoa-nut shell. They would not venture on board, because wheresoever they come is deemed sacred, none daring to enter there afterwards except their proper domestics. He appears tall and well made, about seventeen; his queen handsome, and finely proportioned, about the same age, and always carried about, on shore, on men's shoulders. The king appears thoughtful, speaks

little, but surveys things with attention. The Missionaries supposed something majestic in his appearance, but the Captain thought him of little capacity.—Knowing there were women and children on board, they expressed a wish to see them; and when they walked to the ship's side to shew themselves, they set up a cry of admiration and wonder.'

At a consultation of the Committee of the Missionaries, it was resolved immediately to enter into possession of the house offered. When the women and children were landed, 'vast numbers of the natives crowded to the beach to gratify their curiosity, all behaving with great respect and very peaceable.' They were delighted with the two children; and sent often for them and the women to shew themselves at the door. On the following Sunday, an address was made to the natives by the Rev. Mr. Jefferson, through the medium of one of the Swedes. As soon as the first sentence was interpreted, 'finding the discourse was directed to them, they placed themselves in attentive postures. When they understood a little of what was said, they put very pertinent questions; among others, they asked whether the message of the British God was to the *Toutous* (the lowest class of inhabitants) as well as to the king and chiefs?' Otoo was present, but did not seem much edified. On the arrival of Pomarre, the king's father, the promises of land and of protection were repeated: yet so early as the 14th of March, apprehensions were entertained by the Missionaries, for both their persons and property. Reports had reached them of a design formed by the natives to rush upon them, and take every thing away. The Missionaries on shore strongly urged the necessity of the whole body remaining at Otaheite: but 'the brethren on board having debated the subject, and concluding the above-mentioned fears groundless, and by no means cause sufficient for them to confine the whole effort of the Society to one island, and thereby disappoint the hopes of many of its valuable members at home; they returned their ultimate answer in the negative.'

A day being appointed by Pomarre for ceding in form the district of Matavai to the English, the Captain landed upon Point Venus, and was there received by the Chief, &c.—Most of the Brethren were present at this ceremony, which was simply a speech made by the old priest in presence of the chiefs. One of the Swedes interpreted.—All that we find to the purpose in the speech, as translated in the narrative, is, "that they (the Missionaries) might take what houses, trees, fruit, hogs, &c. they thought proper."—The priest's manner of delivering this speech is described as being so ludicrous, as to have been a subject of mirth and ridicule to the natives who were

were present.—It appears to us that to regard this as a ‘*formal surrender of the district of Matavai*’ is a construction beyond what was intended by the Otaheitean chiefs. The term ‘*to the English,*’ used in the narrative, implies a meaning of too great extent. What was given was specifically to the Missionaries, and seems rather a licence for them to remain in the district, and to occupy as much land as was necessary for their subsistence, than making them proprietors. We think too well of the Missionary Society, to entertain apprehensions that any use of this transaction contrary to the wishes of the natives would be made by *them*: but the manner in which it is related makes us reflect on the slender pretexts on which those people whom we call uncivilized have been deprived of their country, and even of their own liberty and lives, by European nations; and we cannot but deprecate that words thus unthinkingly uttered, by an ignorant people, should hereafter be produced as evidence against them, in support of claims to dispossess them of their territory.

Mr. Jefferson, in a conversation with some of the chiefs, spoke concerning the education of their children. An impression seems to have been made on Pomarre: but Otoo coolly observed that ‘he did not want to learn English.’

The Brethren intended for the Friendly Islands chose Mr. Seth Kelso to be their pastor, and he was ordained previously to their departure; as was also Mr. John Harris, whose destination was to the Marquesas. The Communion closed the solemnity, the bread-fruit of Otaheite being used on that occasion. ‘Manne-Manne was present during the service, and very attentive, particularly during the administration of the Lord’s Supper: he placed himself in the circle with the Brethren, and when they passed him he shifted his situation further on, in hopes of partaking with them.’

As a short trial of absence, the ship sailed to Eimeo, where she staid a few days; and on their return to Matavai bay, the voyagers had the pleasure of hearing that apprehensions of mischief from the natives were no longer entertained by the Missionaries. Nothing, they said, could have exceeded the kindness and attention of the natives. ‘Every day they attended our worship, and heard such addresses as we were enabled to make to them through an interpreter.’

On the 26th of March the Duff sailed from Otaheite towards the Friendly Islands; and one of the Swedes, accompanied by a young Otaheite woman, ‘with whom he had for some time lived as his wife,’ and two others of the islanders, went in the ship.

On the 10th of April they arrived at Tongataboo. Neither the Swede nor the Otaheiteans could make themselves understood : but, soon after the ship anchored, two British seamen, who had quitted a vessel employed in the fur trade, and had been on the island during thirteen months, came on board. By these men, the people of the Duff were informed that the principal chief or king of Tongataboo was an elderly person, named Tibo Moomooe. On the next day, they received a present, and shortly afterward a visit from this prince : but his infirm state of health rendered his entrance into the ship a difficult task. When made acquainted with the desire of the Missionaries to remain, he gave the most favourable encouragement, promising them land, and a house near his own ; which, if they did not approve of its situation, should ' be removed to any spot they preferred.' Four of the Missionaries, with Mr. W. Wilson, the principal writer of the journal, went to examine the place ; which was inclosed by a fence, and contained three or four acres. Besides the large house intended for the Missionaries, there was another which was ' sacred to the God of Pretane,' (Britain,) in which the aged king, when indisposed, sometimes slept in hopes of a cure. This might be considered as a prepossession favourable to the purpose of the mission.—At a consultation, objections were made to this place, on account of its not being in the most frequented part of the island ; as also on the consideration of the king's age, and bad state of health ; and it was determined to send to his son Feenou Toogahowe, to propose to reside under his protection. This chief, the most extraordinary character that they found in the island, was nephew to the Feenou who was the friend of Captain Cook. Toogahowe, the Missionaries were informed, was the most powerful chief in the island ; a great warrior, and a terror to the chiefs not only of Tongataboo, but of the adjacent islands. ' He is a stout man, and may be about 40 years of age ; is of a sullen, morose countenance ; speaks very little, but, when angry, bellows forth with a voice like the roaring of a lion.'—To the application of the Missionaries, Toogahowe returned a favourable answer, and sent a double canoe to convey them and their effects to the part of the island at which he resided. On the two following days, satisfactory accounts were received from the Missionaries ; and on the 14th of April, the ship sailed for the Marquesas.

In this passage, Captain Wilson stood nearly to the 40th degree of South latitude, and kept to the Southward of the trade wind, till the ship was sufficiently to the Eastward of the Marquesas ;

Marquesas; after which, the course steered was to the North. In their route, some small islands were discovered.—On the 4th of June, they saw the Marquesas; and in the evening of the next day, they anchored at the island called by European navigators Santa Christina, but by the natives, Ohitahoo.

The chief of this island was not less willing to receive European settlers, than were those at the other islands. Messrs. Harris and Crook went on shore with the chief to view the proffered accommodations. On their return, Mr. Crook declared himself satisfied with his behaviour, with the house assigned to them, with the place, and with the people; and he concluded by saying that, ‘though there was not the same plenty here as at the other islands, he had no objections to stay, as he never before nor since his engagement had comforts in view;’—‘notwithstanding the present state of the island, (he said) appearances gave him reason to think that they had their plentiful seasons here as well as at the other islands. Mr. Harris delivered his sentiments with hesitation, and his opinions were quite contrary to those of Mr. Crook; he disapproved every thing; judged the scene before him a solemn one; and, in short, seemed entirely to have lost his firmness and ardour. However, as the kind reception by the chief and his people had obviated every direct objection to them, it was agreed to go on shore on the next day, and to make a trial.’—On the 7th Mr. Crook landed, with his effects: but Mr. Harris could not muster up resolution enough to land till the 14th.

In the opinion of the writer, the women at the Marquesas were more beautiful than those either of the Friendly or of the Society Islands. They appeared to be kept by the men in a state of great subjection. In the day time, they were admitted into the ship; and the narrator observes that ‘it was not a little affecting to see our own seamen repairing the rigging, attended by a groupe of the most beautiful females, who were employed to pass the ball or carry the tar-bucket, &c.; and this they did with the greatest assiduity, often besmearing themselves with the tar in the execution of their office. No ship’s company, without great restraints from God’s grace, could ever have resisted such temptations; and some would have probably offended, if they had not been overawed by the jealousy of the officers, and by the good conduct of their mess-mates.’

Early one morning, when the ship was preparing to sail, one of the natives brought a message from Mr. Harris, requiring immediate assistance. A boat was sent, and found him on the beach in great distress. When he came on board, he related that Tenae (the chief of the island) wanted to treat them
with

with an excursion to another valley, to which Mr. Crook readily agreed, but that he (Mr. Harris) would not consent. The chief seeing this, and desirous of obliging him, not considering any favour too great, left him his wife, to be treated as if she were his own, till the chief came back again. Mr. Harris told him that he did not want the woman; however, she looked up to him as her husband, and, finding herself treated with total neglect, became doubtful of his sex. She therefore acquainted some of the other females with her suspicion; who accordingly came in the night, when he slept, and satisfied themselves on that point, but not in such a peaceable way but that they awoke him. Discovering so many strangers, he was greatly terrified; and perceiving what they had been doing, he was determined 'to leave a place, where the people were so abandoned and given up to wickedness:' a cause, the writer observes, which should have excited a contrary resolution. Thus Mr. Harris, who first proposed to settle at the Marquesas, and who for that purpose had been ordained at Otaheite, forsook the partner whom he had persuaded to accompany him. Mr. Crook continued unshaken, and behaved with manly propriety. 'He is a young man of twenty-two, remarkably serious and steady, always employed in the improvement of his mind, and applied with great diligence to the attainment of the language. He also possesses a very good genius, and I have no doubt will contrive many things to benefit the poor creatures he lives with.'—'Tenae had adopted him as his son, an act they ever after hold as sacred, esteeming him in the same light as his other children.'

As the Captain and officers were very little on shore, while the ship remained at this island, the writer of the narrative sent 'a number of queries to Mr. Crook.' His answers to them have a place in the volume. They relate to the religion, customs, &c. of the islanders. 'Their religious ceremonies resemble those of the Society Islands. They have a *morai* in each district.—They have a multitude of deities.—They only offer hogs in sacrifice, and never men.'—'There is no regular government, established law, or punishments; but custom is the general rule.' Nevertheless he says, 'the chief Tenae presides over four districts, but seems invested with less authority than the Otaheitean chiefs.' What state of society shall this be called?

Among their customs, Mr. Crook says, 'I learn the son must not touch the clothes of the father; and must walk before him on the road; and the father must not touch any thing nor eat victuals which have passed over the head of the son.—Their diseases are few; I have indeed hardly observed the appearance of

of any; and they are as yet happily free from that fatal malady which has made such ravages in the Society Islands.'

The small time which had elapsed, between the landing of Mr. Crook and his drawing up the foregoing remarks, scarcely could have sufficed to enable him with certainty to determine on the different subjects which he has noticed. If the truth of his last remark shall be confirmed by longer observation, it may be regarded as conclusive evidence, that to the visits of Europeans is to be attributed the unfortunate introduction of the above mentioned disease among the islands of the Pacific Ocean.

On the 27th of June, the ship sailed from Ohitahoo, or Santa Christina. Captain Wilson steered to the North-west, to determine the situation of Trevennen's and Sir Henry Martin's islands, with respect to Ohitahoo; which having done, he made sail for Otaheite. On the 6th of July, they arrived. The brethren were all in good health, and were on the most friendly terms with the natives, 'who had never failed a day to supply them abundantly with all kinds of provisions. Respecting the purposes of the mission, it was a point of which they could not as yet say any thing more than that appearances were encouraging.'—Their own journals relate the proceedings of the Missionaries during the absence of the ship. Shortly after her departure, they began to erect a blacksmith's shop. The journal of William Puckey says:

'Wanted plank for the blacksmith's shop; told the king. He said, "Harry mie," *come along*. I went with him, and six men; he carried me up the valley; and searching every house, took what he liked: many of the people stoutly resisted, but his men would not leave a plank. I told the king, with whom we exercise the most entire familiarity, that he was a thief. "No," said he, "it is the custom of Otaheite." The king was carried on men's shoulders, till we arrived at a territory of his own; when alighting, he took a majestic stride, and stalking on, "Puckey," says he, "is this as King George walks?" I told him "Yes." Having gone about three miles, I desired to return. He then gave me a hog, and made the people from whom he had taken the plank, carry it down to our house.'—The shop being finished, and Brother Hodges, with Hassel, at work, Pomarre came, supremely delighted with the bellows and forge, and catching the blacksmith in his arms, all dirty as he was, joined noses with him, and expressed his high satisfaction.'

The presents made to the brethren who worked at the forge were what, in that country, may be called magnificent. At one time, Pomarre sent them two canoes, two large hogs, eight couple of fowls, and some fish, with a quantity of Otaheite cloth. Such encouragement calls to our mind the well-known story of the basket-maker,

The

The following paragraph, which is found in the journal of the Missionaries, seems dictated by a more than ordinary degree of credulity :

‘ A fact was reported to us, which, if true, was shocking. In one of Captain Cook’s visits, he left a great monkey, who was made a chief at Attahgozoo; he had a wife, and thirty servants, and abundance of every thing;—One day the woman seeing him catch the flies and eat them, which they abominate, she ran away into the mountains; the monkey and his toutous pursued, but being met by Temarre who was jealous of his authority, he knocked him down with a club, and killed him.’

The Missionaries had begun to preach to the natives in their own language, and to teach some of them the use of letters. ‘ The king and queen brought a large present of cocoa-nuts to Brothier Cover and his wife, desiring to become their adopted children, and promising to regard them as their father and mother.’ One Sunday, when many of the principal natives were present, a sermon was preached from “*Thou shalt not kill.*” After the sermon, they had a more particular conversation with Iddeah, the king’s mother, who was then pregnant by a toutou, who was of the Arreobie Society. ‘ Pomarre had taken another wife, and she one of her servants; but they lived in the same state of friendship, and with no loss of dignity.’ The Missionaries endeavoured to convince her of the heinousness of killing children, in a mother especially. They offered to receive the child in order that it should be no trouble to her, and that our women would take care of it. They promised her presents, and represented to her that her example would have the happiest effect on the nation; but they could obtain no other answer than that ‘ the child was base born; had it been Pomarre’s, it would have lived; but that now they were Arreobies.’—This passed on the 9th of April. On the 12th, the journal says, ‘ This day Iddeah appeared again in public, and Manne-Manne communicated to us the afflictive intelligence that she had murdered her new-born babe. It was therefore resolved by the brethren, that no more presents should be received from Iddeah; and that our marked disapprobation of her conduct should be shewn whenever she came to our house.’ With this behaviour she was highly offended. ‘ She is a bold daring spirit, and much more warlike than her husband Pomarre. It may be worth a remark, that Iddeah had not been absent from our house two days before she appeared as if nothing ailed her: with so little inconvenience do the most painful operations of nature affect those of that happy climate.’ In the destruction of children, contrary to the practice of Pharaoh with the Israelites, a greater number of females than males fall a sacrifice.

The

The people of Otaheite seem ambitious of displaying their knowledge of the English language ; using the few words which they have picked up, right or wrong. The Missionaries, among other instances, have given the following : ‘ A native coming into our apartments, a brother took occasion to speak to him about God. He owned the Otaheitan gods were *enow*, bad, for they ate men, hogs, bread-fruit, &c. which the Pretane God did not, and was “ a good fellow.”—The discourses addressed to the natives appear to have been always heard with respect, and sometimes with attention ; though Manne-Manne, the old priest, once complained that “ they gave them plenty of the word of God, but not of many other things.”

Here closes our account from the journals kept at Otaheite during the ship's absence at the Marquesas. The conduct and manners of the Missionaries appear to have been mild and exemplary ; and, at this time, they were regarded by the natives with great good-will and respect. Wherever they went, they found the most cordial welcome. The short time which they had passed on the island was mostly occupied in endeavouring to learn the language ; and it therefore was not to be expected, that they could have made much progress in communicating to the natives the benefits of religious instruction. Some of the chiefs were apparently eager to learn : but it must be by slow degrees that any lasting effect can be produced on a people whose characters are so much less fitted to retain than to receive impressions.

We shall now permit our readers to take breath ; and in our next Number we shall present them with an account of the remaining part of the voyage.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Iter Britanniarum* ; or that Part of the Itinerary of Antoninus which relates to Britain, with a new Comment. By the Rev. Thomas Reynolds, A. M. Rector of Bowden Parva, Northamptonshire. 4to. pp. 500. 18s. Boards. Cadell, jun. and Davies. 1799.

THE Itinerary of Antoninus, our readers will recollect, is a work of undoubted Roman antiquity, consisting of a catalogue of the names of a great number of towns in the various and distant provinces of the Roman empire. Of the situation of these towns it has in some degree preserved a knowledge, by giving their distances from each other as they are connected in certain lines, each describing an *iter* or journey.

When a love for the study of antiquity rekindled with the revival of letters in Europe, it is not surprizing that such a work

as this should have become an object of general attention; and that much pains should have been taken to elucidate and explain its valuable contents, which the lapse of centuries, and an universal change of names and circumstances, had rendered extremely obscure. Accordingly, several eminent and ingenious men early applied themselves to the task. Among those who wrote on that part of it which relates to Britain, Talbot, a canon of Norwich under Henry VIII., was the first; but he went only to the end of the fifth *Iter*, though the work contains fifteen. After Talbot, came Burton, as a professed commentator on the *Iter Britanniarum*; and Burton was followed by Dr. Gale, to whom the antiquarian world has considerable obligations for the re-publication of several old authors relating to the antient state of this island:—he died in 1702, and left his comment on the *Iter* unfinished. The last of those who have attempted a general explanation of the Antonine *Iter*, as it relates to Britain, was Horsley; who, in his *Britannia Romana*, has given an ingenious but short essay on this subject. His work was published in 1732; and as, from its nature, it must have been a considerable time in preparation, it may be supposed that it was undertaken at no great distance from the commencement of the eighteenth century.

These authors professedly wrote on the *Iter* as their principal subject. A variety of others, men of high character in the literary and antiquarian world, have treated it incidentally, and contributed in a great degree to rescue it from interpolations, and clear it from difficulty. Among these latter, we find the names of Leland, Harrison, Camden, Gibson, Baxter, Stukely, and Whitaker.

A work so involved in obscurity, and containing neither historical remarks nor observations of any kind, which might serve as a clue to the learning or sagacity of the reader, even the labours of all these commentators have not succeeded in rendering fully understood; though they have certainly removed many of the difficulties with which it had been encumbered. In the course of the century, however, which has now nearly elapsed since any author wrote expressly on this subject, many helps have been attained towards a more perfect elucidation. Within that period, so many Roman antiquities have been found in different parts of the island, our maps have been so much improved, and the distances of towns have been so accurately ascertained, that, in the opinion of Mr. Reynolds, if a full explanation of it cannot be had, at least a much better account of it may now be very justly deemed practicable, than it could have been in the power of any former writer to furnish, though possessed of the utmost ability. Under this impression,

Mr. R.

Mr. R. engaged in the undertaking; which, as he tells us in his preface, 'proceeds on the sound and excellent foundation which the former commentators had laid, and will not be found to differ from them but where they seem not to have had it in their power to reach the truth.'

In executing this design, Mr. R. extracts, from all the authors who have either expressly or incidentally written on the *Iter*, a view of that work, regular and consistent in all its parts; and this he does by paying an exact and particular attention to the distances of the towns, according to the numbers laid down for the designation of them. By all the former commentators, it was deemed enough to say, in general terms, that the distances agreed with the numbers: but Mr. R. does not content himself with barely declaring that the distances and numbers correspond:—he produces the best evidence that can be obtained for the truth of that assertion. To ascertain those distances, he makes use of Ogilby's Survey of the direct and principal Cross Roads in England and Wales—Paterson's Itinerary—his Description of Roads—his Travelling Dictionary—and above all, of Carey's excellent Maps, reduced from the actual survey of most of the counties in England.

The argument founded on the real distance of a town, corresponding with that which is attributed to it in the Itinerary, is not the only one on which Mr. R. generally rests. He adds to it the many other proofs which are drawn from the Roman antiquities discovered at the respective places, and of which he gives short accounts from Camden, Stukely, Horsley, &c. It is a curious fact that the accidental purchase of Carey's Maps, in which the Roman roads are marked, led Mr. R. step by step, to those inquiries which terminated in the composition of the laborious work now offered to the public.

Prefixed to the work, is an extensive and elaborate introduction, in which Mr. Reynolds displays considerable learning in antiquities, and in ancient geography. We have also a Map of ancient Britain, exceedingly well executed; and constructed, by the assistance of the Geography of Cellarius, for the express purpose of elucidating the *Iter*.—In an appendix, is given an abridged view of the *whole* Itinerary, comprehending all the provinces of the Roman empire, Ptolemy's Geography of Britain, an extract from the *Notitia*, giving the names of towns at that time in Britain (both of these from Horsley), a copy of the Itinerary of Richard of Cirencester, and an alphabetical list of a great number of towns at which Roman curiosities have been found.

This production is candidly acknowledged by Mr. R. to be the result of *closet* labour, as he had not an opportunity of personally

personally visiting the towns of which he treats. He professes to have felt 'the weight of this objection to his work, which he would have been glad to remove, had his situation and circumstances in life permitted the attempt:' but he does not admit it to be fatal, since, he says, 'it is one thing to find Roman stations, and another to combine such discoveries for the illustration of the Itinerary:—the one is the work of labour and expensive inquiry on the spot; the latter must be the work of the closet.'

Without conceding to Mr. R. that this is a *complete* answer to the objection of which he himself felt the force, we yet think that for the industry, learning, and ingenuity of his work, however compiled, the public (and particularly the lovers of antiquity) owe him thanks.

Our readers in general, however, would not be obliged to us for entering minutely into the discussions which the volume contains; and we must therefore rest satisfied with having so far discharged our duty in reporting its nature and contents.

ART. III. *The Annual Anthology*. Vol. I. Crown 8vo. pp. 300. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1799.

A GREAT and important change has been effected in taste by the multiplication of books, and by a diffusion of the passion for reading. It should seem that the maxim of Horace, that middling Poetry is intolerable, must now be dismissed from the canons of criticism; since the majority of readers, at present, prefer that species of verse which he proscribed. In his day, the works of celebrated men were treasures of great price, which could only be possessed by the noble and opulent: but the art of printing has rendered the beauties of poetry accessible to persons of all degrees of information, and has increased the number of bad judges still more than that of bad writers. Compilations like the present are therefore not to be disregarded, though they contain no poem of superior excellence. While they afford respectable amusement for vacant hours, they may serve the better purpose of ushering some poet of real genius to public notice. Several writers of the last age were first introduced by similar miscellanies, to that distinction which they afterward obtained. Publications of this nature are also useful as preserving occasional pieces which, from the peculiar happiness of their composition, are calculated to outlive the temporary interest that produced them: but the necessity of furnishing a certain quantity of matter, in a determined period, unavoidably renders them too often the receptacles of mediocrity.

Many

Many of the verses in this volume are anonymous. To others, we observe the names of well-known authors affixed : Messrs. Southey, Dyer, Lloyd, Lamb, Cottle, Davy, and Dr. Beddoes, have given their signatures ; and Mrs. Opie has acknowledged a few verses.

In attempting to characterize the contents of the volume, we must own that our sagacity has been strangely put to the test, to distinguish the ironical from the serious parts. Some of the poems are evidently written to satirize the prevailing faults of modern bards : but others are placed by their side, which are so serious and yet so similar in structure, that we feel a perplexity like that of the manager who asked an author, after having read his play, " Pray, Sir, is this your tragedy, or your comedy ?"—With this difficulty in our way, for which we entreat the reader's consideration, we shall proceed to a more particular description of some of this motley assemblage.

A Topographical Ode. This is an unsuccessful attempt to execute an ode without rhyme, in our language. It was an experiment which Milton only tried once ; and if it did not succeed with him, who bestowed all the graces and all the dignity on our language of which it is susceptible, it may be regarded as hopeless. Collins indeed repeated the trial, but without furnishing encouragement to future imitators. We cannot compliment the writer of the ode before us, so far as to say that he has even attained the rank of Collins, whom we suppose he has taken for his model. The only characteristic of that poet, which he has appropriated, is his obscurity. He considers what he should do if he were a cloud (a figure extremely well adapted to his verses) ; and thus, among other cloudy stanzas, he sings ;

' I'll weave the crimson lining of the tent,
Where jealous Evening, from the musing eye
Pavilions secretly
His couch of dumb repose.'

When he becomes a meteor, the poetry grows still darker :

' Were I a flame-shaft of the northern dawn
On Skiddaw's height I'd take my glittering stand,
And wreath with flickering fire
His murky brow sublime,

' While darkness still with her broad mantle wraps
The giant-limbs of his majestic form,
And Silence clasps his foot
Save where hoarse torrents rush.

' Thence would I stretch my sword cherubic wide
O'er all thy kindling waters, and expand
A ruby sea of fire
Between thy mountains dun.

‘Then quench the fervent blushes on thy cheek,
And chace the whitening splendor far away
To sparkle thro’ the air
In many a fleecy flake.’

On the epithet *flickering*, in the first stanza, we must remark that it is not in good usage; it is introduced by Shakspeare in a burlesque passage, (*Lear*, act 2. sc. 2.) and our very reverence for that poet should prevent us from preferring words which he seems to have stigmatized. The questionable phrase of *delighted spirit* is injudiciously used in a subsequent stanza.— So careless or so inaccurate has the writer been, that he has employed a very ludicrous phrase in the last stanza but two;

‘And from the marble grottoes of thy bed,
Shall oft emerge the ladies of the Lake,
To doff upon thy strand
The loose cerulean woof.’

We thought that the designation of ‘Ladies of the Lake’ had been known to all readers of *Don Quixote*; and we should be sorry to imagine that they have the assurance to forsake the Strand, and to bathe in the view of moralists and poets, in the pure streams which our bard intended to celebrate: especially as he exhibits the aforesaid ladies in blue and buff.

Bishop Bruno. A very indifferent resemblance of halfpenny ballads, on a subject which would have admitted some ghostly decoration.

The Holly Tree: by Robert Southey. This is an imitation of some of our older poets, and contains many of their faults. The reader shall judge:

‘O Reader! hast thou ever stood to see
The Holly Tree?
The eye that contemplates it well perceives
Its glossy leaves
Ordered by an intelligence so wise
As might confound the Atheist’s sophistries.
Below, a circling fence, its leaves are seen
Wrinkled and keen,
No grazing cattle thro’ their prickly round
Can reach to wound,
But as they grow where nothing is to fear,
Smooth and unarm’d the pointless leaves appear.
I love to view these things with curious eyes
And moralize;
And in the wisdom of the Holly Tree
Can emblems see
Wherewith perchance to make a pleasant rhyme,
Such as may profit in the after-time.

‘So,

- ' So, tho' abroad perchance I might appear
Harsh and austere,
To those who on my leisure would intrude
Reserved and rude,
Gentle at home amid my friends I'd be
Like the high leaves upon the Holly Tree.
- ' And should my youth, as youth is apt I know,
Some harshness show,
All vein asperities I day by day
Would wear away,
Till the smooth temper of my age should be
Like the high leaves upon the Holy Tree.
- ' And as when all the summer trees are seen
So bright and green,
The Holly leaves their fadeless hues display
Less bright than they,
But when the bare and wintry woods we see
What then so chearful as the Holly Tree?
- ' So serious should my youth appear among
The thoughtless throng,
So would I seem amid the young and gay
More grave than they,
That in my age as chearful I might be
As the green winter of the Holly Tree.'

We object particularly to the 5th line of the first stanza; it is nothing more than familiar prose: the 6th is little better.

Elegy on a Quid of Tobacco. This we suppose to be an ironical piece: but we can trace no particular points of imitation, and may therefore be deceived.

Musings on the Wig of a Scarecrow. This is another heteroclite performance, by the author of the *Elegy on a Quid of Tobacco*: we shall lay it before our readers, that they may judge whether this be "his *Comedy or Tragedy*."

- ' Alas for this world's changes and the lot
Of sublunary things! yon wig that there
Moves with each motion of the inconstant air,
Invites my pensive mind to serious thought.
Was it for this its curious caul was wrought
Close as the tender tendrils of the vine
With cluster'd curls? Perhaps the artist's care
Its borrowed beauties for some Lady fair
Arranged with nicest art and fingers fine;
Or for the forehead fram'd of some Divine
Its graceful gravity of grizzled grey;
Or whether on some stern Schoolmaster's brow
Sate its white terrors, who shall answer now?
On yonder rag-robed pole for many a day
Have those dishonour'd locks endur'd the rains

And winds, and summer sun, and winter snow,
 Scaring with vain alarms the robber crow,
 Till of its former form no trace remains,
 None of its antient honours ! I survey
 It's alter'd state with moralizing eye,
 And journey sorrowing on my lonely way,
 And muse on Fortune's mutability.

THEODORIT.'

To a Young Man, who considered the Perfection of Human Nature as consisting in the Vigor and Indulgence of the more boisterous Passions. By Charles Lloyd. We observe nothing remarkable in this short sermon, excepting a new word,

'That most *Companiable* and awful Sense ;'

We do not conceive that any author is entitled to clip the King's English at this unmerciful rate. The word *Companiable* has been admitted on the stage, with many other barbarisms : but it has never found its way into good writing.

To Mr. Opie, on his having painted for me the Picture of Mrs. Twiss. By Mrs. Opie. We shall give the reader the pleasure of seeing this respectable tribute of affection to Genius.

'Hail to thy pencil ! well it's glowing art
 Has traced those features painted on my heart :
 Now, tho' in distant scenes she soon will rove,
 Still shall I here behold the friend I love ;
 Still see that smile "endearing, artless, kind,"
 The eye's mild beam that speaks the candid mind,
 Which, sportive oft, yet fearful to offend,
 By humour charms, but never wounds a friend.
 But in my breast contending feelings rise,
 While this lov'd semblance fascinates my eyes ;
 Now pleas'd, I mark the painter's skilful line,
 Now joy, because the skill I mark was thine :
 And while I prize the gift by thee bestow'd,
 My heart proclaims I'm of the *giver* proud.
 Thus pride and friendship war with equal strife,
 And now the FRIEND exults, and now the WIFE.

AMELIA OPIE, 1799.'

The Oak of our Fathers. The author of this piece, whom we suppose to be Mr. Southey, has here spoken in a parable, against the intemperate zeal of some pretended friends to our Constitution ; whom he likeneth to the ivy, which looseneth the roots of the tree to which it adhereth.

To a Friend, inquiring if I would live over my Youth again. By the repetition of his 'nay William nay,' we might suspect this to be a broad-brimm'd friend. Verily, he abhorreth the abomination of rhyme, and goeth not a-whoring after the inventions

tions of the heathen ! The signature, *Ertburgo*, however, would bear, as an Anagram, to be decyphered R. Southey.

The Rbedycinian Barbers. A pretty close parody on one of Gray's Odes. The following stanzas will shew how trippingly the imitation goes off:

- ' Low the obdurate curl is laid,
By our irons straighten'd down;
Dress demands the finished head,
Soon the fore-top shall be done.
- ' Long shall Christ-Church smile with joy,
Such a head as this to see;
Long her strains in praise employ,
Strains of wit and repartee.'

The parody deserves the praise which belongs to such slight specimens of ingenuity.

Ode to the River Cam. By George Dyer. This melancholy bard reclines on the banks of 'Willow Cam,' and, beholding divers places wherein his friends lie buried, drops a tear in stanza II. and could weep all night for the loss of his Julia, but that he espies the garden of his deceased friend Robert Robinson:

- ' Then again my bosom bleeds,
Then I drop the silent tear.'

In stanza III. he weeps for William Taylor, ordering the Cam to 'steal slow along;' and in stanza IV. he shews cause why he should weep again:

- ' Hark! I hear the death-bell sound!
There another spirit fled!
Still mine ears the tidings wound;
Philo * slumbers with the dead.
Well he knew the Critic's part;
Shakespeare's name to him was dear;
Kind and gentle was his heart;
—Now again I drop the tear.'

Certainly no poet ever wept more laboriously; and had he not wiped his eyes, and changed the subject in the succeeding page, his readers must have broken their hearts. This ode is the very dripping-stone of the Muses.

Chimalpoca. There are several good lines in this detached scene, founded on the Mexican history: but it is too abrupt to excite much interest, though short enough to be read without impatience.

St. Michael's Chair, and who sat there. It seems to be imagined, by some of our present writers, that the merit of old

ballads consists in their quaintness; and that to adopt their obsolete phraseology is to appropriate their beauties. This is an unfortunate mistake. The authors of those compositions wrote the best language with which they were acquainted; and those who conceive that the modern style is incapable of expressing simplicity and feeling, with truth, need only turn to the ballads of Gay and Goldsmith. Gay is, indeed, the most perfect model for the English ballad. We read and repeat his verses without satiety; while we should never again endure to be told, that

‘ Merrily merrily rung the bells,
The bells of St. Michael’s tower,
When Richard Penlake and Rebecca his wife
Arrived at the church-door.’ (*downer*)

This is ‘*the right butter-woman’s rank to market.*’

*To the Burnie Bee**. There is a considerable display of sportive fancy in this little piece, which we shall therefore extract:

‘ Blythe son of summer, furl thy filmy wing,
Alight beside me on this bank of moss;
Yet to its sides the lingering shadows cling,
And sparkling dews the dark-green tufts imboss.

‘ Here may’st thou freely quaff the nectar’d sweet
That in the violet’s purple chalice hides,
Here on the lily scent thy fringed feet,
Or with the wild-thyme’s balm anoint thy sides.

‘ Back o’er thy shoulders throw those ruby shards
With many a tiny coal-black freckle deckt,
My watchful look thy loitering sauater guards,
My ready hand thy footstep shall protect.

‘ Daunted by me beneath this trembling bough
On forked wing no greedy swallow sails,
No hopping sparrow pries for food below,
Nor evet lurks, nor dusky blindworm trails.

‘ Nor shall the swarthy gaoler for thy way
His grate of twinkling threads successful strain,
With venom’d trunk thy writhing members slay,
Or from thy heart the recking life’s-blood drain.

‘ Forego thy wheeling in the sunny air
Thy glancing to the envious insects round,
To the dim calmness of my bower repair,
Silence and Coolness keep its hallowed ground.

‘ Here to the elves who sleep in flowers by day
Thy softest hum in lulling whispers pour,

* ‘ A provincial name of the beetle *Coccinella*, or lady-bird.’

- Or o'er the lovely band thy shield display
 When blue-eyed twilight sheds her dewy showers.
 ' So shall the fairy-train by glow-worm light:
 With rainbow tints thy folding pennons fret,
 Thy scaly breast in deeper azure dight,
 Thy burnish'd armour speck with glossier jet.
 ' With viewless fingers weave thy wintry tent,
 And line with gossamer thy pendant cell;
 Safe in the rift of some lone ruin pent
 Where ivy shelters from the storm-wind fell.
 ' Blest if like thee I cropt with heedless spoil
 The gifts of youth and pleasure in their bloom,
 Doom'd for no coming winter's want to toil,
 Fit for the spring that waits beyond the tomb.'

The idea of this poem seems to have been suggested by Lovelace's charming Ode to the Grasshopper; the general plan of which he took from Anacreon:

" O thou that swing'st upon the waving hair
 Of some well-filled oaten beard,
 Drunk ev'ry night with a delicious tear,
 Dropt thee from heav'n, where now thou'rt rear'd.

LOVELACE.

The word ' shards,' in the third stanza, however correct, is not poetical, and ought to have been rejected.

Inscriptions, by Robert Southey. When we say that these inscriptions remind us of those which were published by Akenside, we pay Mr. Southey a lower compliment than many of our readers might suppose. The general fault of these pieces is that they are too long, and that the lines, by running into each other, become prosaic. Tameness, too, is substituted here for simplicity; the absence of superfluous ornament is not a sufficient recommendation of style; it should come forth *naturali pulchritudini*. We meet with no felicity of expression, nor any novelty of thought, which can furnish an interesting extract.

Stanzas written on the Sea-Shore, in 1792, signed by Mrs. Opie, contain much good sense, though not expressed with any remarkable poetical force.

Living without God in the World. By Charles Lamb. This gentleman must be some preternatural Being, for he proclaims,

' I see a mighty arm, by man unseen.'

We should therefore suppose him to be the shadow of an author; and indeed there is nothing very substantial in his lines.

The Sons of Genius. We cannot afford the praise either of poetical energy or elegance to this composition. The lines are heavy and monotonous, and there is not sufficient vigour

in the thoughts to *atone* for the metrical defects. The rhymes are inaccurate: *play* and *sea*, *war* and *shore*, are made to correspond.—We hope that the author will produce better proofs than the present, of his claim to be admitted among the lawful sons of Genius. This poem inclines to the *bend sinister*.

Song, by Mrs. Opie. A pretty, sentimental trifle.

The Song of Pleasure. We have found no pleasure in perusing this song: it consists of a few common images, borrowed from former poets, and not decorated by new expressions.

To Indolence. This is another ode in blank verse; its greatest peculiarity is that, notwithstanding the title, it appears about the middle of the poem that it is *not* addressed to Indolence, but to 'her sister Leisure.' This is quite a new way of writing, but we observe nothing else remarkable in the composition.

The Filbert. "There can be no kernel in this light nut *;" unless the poem be intended to satirize somebody. If such were the author's design, he ought to have afforded us some means of guessing at his object.

Sonnets. These are all nearly equal in merit. That the reader may determine what degree of praise they deserve, we shall insert two, one of which is a very successful parody on the serious pieces:

'How soothing sweet methinks it is to walk
By moonlight, when the still delicious calm
Sheds o'er the love-lorn soul a grateful balm,
And woos the woe to peace! O then I talk,
Rapt in myself as slow I pace along,
Of hopeless Love, and weep upon my wounds,
Soft as the hollow gale's expiring sounds,
Soft as the veiled virgin's evening song,
Soft as mild Melancholy's noiseless tread.
Thus breathing many a plaint and many a sigh,
I gaze the moon with fondly-fixed eye
Musing on many a lovely vision fled
Hopeless and sad, till down I sink to rest,
By sorrow, silence, solitude, oppress.'—

'That gooseberry-bush attracts my wandering eyes,
Whose vivid leaves so beautifully green
First opening in the early spring are seen;
I sit and gaze, and cheerful thoughts arise
Of that delightful season drawing near
When those grey woods shall don their summer dress
And ring with warbled love and happiness.
I sit and think that soon the advancing year

* Shakspeare,

With

With golden flowers shall star the verdant vale.

Then may the enthusiast Youth at eve's lone hour,
Led by mild Melancholy's placid power,
Go listen to the soothing nightingale
And feed on meditation; while that I
Remain at home and feed on gooseberry-pye.'

In a sonnet to *Personification*, we observe a very unwarrantable extension of the poetical licence.

'Discord and Death, and stern defying Fate,
Walk'd o'er the earth, destroying. Such is PERSONIFICATION. He whom she employs
To deck her labors, and increase her joys.'

This passage reminds us of those verses which were

"Written by William Prynne, Esquire, the
Year of our Lord 1633."

The Killcrop. This dialogue turns on a popular superstition, which supposes that a dæmon is substituted occasionally for a child, to the vexation of some honest peasant. The name given to the supposititious child is Killcrop;—a passage to this purpose is quoted from Luther's works.

The Spirit. This story is told with some humour, and will be read with pleasure by those who are fond of nursery-tales.

Eclogue, by Robert Southey; *The last of the Family.* An affecting poem might be written on this subject, but Mr. S. has proved so very correct in his imitation of the gossiping of Farmer James and Farmer Gregory, that he has taken off much from the gravity as well as the interest of the piece.

Ode to St. Michael's Mount, in Cornwall. This ode presents nothing which we are tempted to extract. The rhimes are very incorrect: *recal* and *soul*, *sea* and *away*, *philosophy* and *eye*, are not admissible in a short poem.

The Tempest. We observe, in the measure and sentiments of this poem, an imitation of Dr. Beattie's *Hermit*, but certainly no improvement on the original. Dr. Beattie's verses were evidently founded on some lines of the epitaph on Bion, by Moschus;

Αἰ, αἰ, αἰ μαλακαί, ἐπὶν κατὰ κακὸν οἰῶνται, &c.

but the despondency of the Grecian poet, on the subject of a future state, has been happily corrected by the hopes of the Christian bard.

The Hermit-Boy. By A. S. Cottle. This story is taken from one of Fontaine's tales: *Les Oies de Frere Philippe*. It is here attempted in the measure of Mr. Lewis's *Alonzo the Bold and the Fair Imogene*, with no peculiar felicity.

The Seas. The author of this piece was probably instructed by a schoolmaster, like him who is mentioned by Quintillian,

whose

whose precept was constantly *ονορίζον, be obscure*. We have not the honour of understanding this gentleman's language. It is too 'peregrinate' for us.

Passages, extracted from imitative "Verses on Alexander's Expedition down the Hydaspes and the Indus, to the Indian Ocean," printed in 1792, but not published. These verses, which have the signature of Dr. Beddoes, are intended (we suppose) to resemble the poetry of the *Botanic Garden*. In some passages, the imitation is pretty correct: but, in general, the tone and finishing are unequal to the productions of Dr. Darwin.

Some of Dr. Beddoes's opening lines will remind our readers strongly of the *Botanic Garden*:

' At first low murmurs creep; at length the bands
Ope their glad lips, and smite their joyous hands,
Till land and waters pour exulting cries,
And pealing shouts assail the Indian skies—'

It is remarkable that the allegorical personages in Dr. Darwin's poem exhibit only two actions; they either *wave their locks*, or clap their hands.—The verses on the premature death of Alexander are much superior to those which we have just quoted:

' But Earth's fond hope how blasted in its bloom!
How feels a world convulsed thy early doom!
What mingling sounds of woe and outrage rise:
How wild the eddying dust of ruin flies!
As frantic Chiefs the Master's pile deface,
Rend his strong walls and shake the deep-laid base.
Mourn, India, mourn—The womb of future time
Teems with the fruit of each portentous crime.
The Crescent onwards guides consuming hosts,
And Carnage dogs the Cross along thy coasts;
From Christian strands, the rage accursed of gain
Wafts all the Furies in its baleful train,
Their eye-ball strained, impatient of the way,
They snuff, with nostril broad, the distant prey.
— And now the Rout pollutes the hallowed shore
That nursed young Art and infant Science bore;
Fierce in the van, her fire-brand Warfare waves;
Dire at her heels the cry of hell-hounds raves:
Roused by the yell, the Greedy and the Bold
Start to the savage chace of blood and gold.'

We must observe, on one line,

' That nursed young Art and infant Science bore ;'
that it appears to be taken from a very good line by Mr. Hayley, in which he describes India as

" The soil that infant Art and letters bore."

The strain of these verses, however, is generally above the common

common level, and affords a remarkable proof of versatility of talents.

We now close our account of this volume, which has run to an unexpected length; though we have refrained from noticing one half of its contents. We have praised when we could; we have been silent, when the subject merited neither praise nor blame; and we have attacked nothing but affectation, the mortal poison of every species of composition. In whatever form this enemy of good poetry may appear, whether in overstrained refinement or in vulgar simplicity, we shall use our utmost endeavours to expose it. It is particularly incumbent on us thus to exert ourselves, when we observe writers of merit justifying their carelessness, and bespeaking our favour for verses

“ Which a dog might write,
If he could hold a pen,”

as our old acquaintance Hall has said. The insurmountable objection to all hasty productions is, “ Why do you publish ?” The art of rhiming correctly is now so common, that it excites no surprize; and unless a writer can excel his predecessors, he has no justifiable temptation to appear in print, excepting the facility of his readers. A book newly printed is a novelty to the multitude, though it may contain nothing new to scholars.—We hope that the next volume of this work will exhibit more estimable originality, and less of the *bizarre*, than the one which is now before us.

ART. IV. *Transactions of the Linnean Society*, Vol. IV. 4to. 1l. 5s. Boards. White. 1798. Vol. V. 1l. 1s. Boards. White. 1800.

UNAVOIDABLE circumstances having delayed our account of the fourth volume of this work, a fifth has just made its appearance, and we shall now pay due attention to both.—This quickness in the publication of the Linnean Society reflects the highest credit on the zeal and science of its members; particularly when we recollect that the approbation of all lovers of natural history in Great Britain, as well as on the Continent, has hitherto been the only encouragement which they have received.—The papers contained in both these volumes comprehend much valuable information, which will serve to give improvement to different parts of the science, and to furnish observations and details which may be useful to future inquirers.

In vol. iv. we find twenty-four papers; the first of which, entitled *Aves Sussexienses*, by William Markwick, Esq. is a

systematical

systematical catalogue of 175 species of birds observed by him in the county of Sussex; distinguishing those that are continually resident there, and those which migrate to that country in summer or winter, or are occasional visitors. This catalogue is followed by a number of notes relative to particular species, in which Mr. Markwick proves himself to be an attentive and candid observer.

Anecdotes of the late Dr. Patrick Browne, Author of the *Natural History of Jamaica* *; by Aylmer Bourke Lambert, Esq. — In an excursion to Ireland in 1790, Mr. Lambert made a visit to the above-named meritorious and venerable botanist, then living retired at Ballinrobe, in the county of Mayo. All that Mr. L. saw and learned of him shews how deeply rooted was his passion for botany, even in his last days; for he died soon afterward, at an advanced age. These anecdotes may be considered as useful materials for a *Biographia Botanica*; which is still a desideratum.

Descriptions of three rare Species of British Birds, by G. Montagu, Esq. — These three species are the *sylvia sylvicola*, or wood-wren; the *tringa nigricans*, or phayrelan sand-piper; and the *alauda petrasa*, or rock lark. The second of these birds is a non-descript, and was killed at Larn, in Wales.

Account of some Species of fossil Anomia, found in Derbyshire. By Mr. William Martin. — The species of *anomia* found in the lime-stone strata of Derbyshire are very numerous. In about two years, Mr. Martin had collected twenty-nine species of them; fourteen of which belong to the tribe of the imperforate, and fifteen to the perforate. He classes them according to the proportions and shape of their valves, hinges, margins, and apertures. One among them, not before noticed by naturalists, he describes at full length under the name of *anomia cuspidata*. Some pertinent observations are found in this paper respecting the hinge of these shells, and their perforation, considered as a generic character.

Essay on the Eye-like Spot in the Wings of the Locusta of Fabricius, as indicating the Male Sex; by Professor Lichtenstein. — We are not to wonder if, in describing the innumerable organized beings, even the greatest naturalists have been sometimes bewildered as to the proper import of the differences which are observed. The study of natural history is of so recent a date, and its object is so widely extended, that such mistakes scarcely diminish our good opinion of those who committed them, and only add lustre to the sagacity of those later observers who perceive and correct them. Fabricius had taken the curious

* See Rev. vol. xv. p. 301. 333.

eye-like spots, which are the subject of this essay, as specific differences of some *locuste*; and he had therefore called them *L. perspicillata*, *L. specularis*, *L. perforata*. The author of this paper had occasion to examine a great number of species of this genus of insects, in the Holthusian museum; and he found that, in all species of *locustæ*, the males possessed this singular character, and the females were deprived of it. He describes the structure and use of this part, exemplifying it in the *locusta salicifolia*, of which he gives a figure.—The paper is full of entomological erudition. Such observations tend to diminish the number; already too great, of species of insects; a class of animals in which it is probable that the two sexes, in many instances, having different appearances, have been described as so many different species. Linné had already remarked that the *papilio jurtina*, and the *papilio janira*, were only different sexes of the same species.

A new Arrangement of the Genus Polytrichum, with some Emendations, by Mr. Archibald Menzies.—As this botanist very justly observes, the character of a genus, and the consequent arrangement of it, are perfectly settled only when a sufficient number of species is known. For this reason, the Linnean character of *polytrichum* is not satisfactory; and Mr. Menzies prefers that which was proposed by Leers, and adopted by the late Mr. Curtis in the *Flora Londinensis*. After having fixed and detailed the natural character of the genus, he describes nineteen species of *polytrichum*, six of which are new; and four among these have been gathered by the author in the North-west parts of America, where he went with Captain Vancouver in his voyage round the world*.

Observations on the Spinning Limax, by Dr. Latham.—Mr. Hoy had given, in the first volume of the Linnean transactions, an account of this animal, which seems to be the *limax agrestis* of Linné; and Colonel Montagu had occasion to make, in Cornwall, some observations on its faculty of suspending itself by a thread of its own spinning. These are the observations published in this paper by Dr. Latham; who is inclined to think it very possible that the spinning faculty may belong to every species of the genus *limax*.

An Essay on the Trachea or Windpipes of various Kinds of Birds; by the same.—In most birds, the natural shape of the windpipe is that of a regularly uniform cylinder of equal diameter, or nearly so throughout, from its rise at the root of the tongue to its entrance into the hollow of the breast-bone; where it divides into two branches, called *branchiæ*, which ramify into

* See Rev. vol. xxviii. N.S. p. 1. 141. 374.

air-vessels composing the two lobes of the lungs. A peculiar deviation from this general structure is observable in the males only of several species of birds, and had been mentioned by different naturalists. Dr. Latham, to whom ornithology is much indebted for his former publications, investigates this subject in the present paper with great attention and accuracy. He remarks that the deviations from the common structure of the trachea, in birds, are of two kinds. In the first, this organ, although of equal diameter, (or nearly so,) differs in being longer than the neck, thus allowing of a double about the middle of it; or forming one or more folds within the keel-like process of the sternum, which is hollowed out for that purpose; or, instead of entering the keel, it runs more or less over the surface of the breast, beneath the skin. The second kind of deviation is where the windpipe is unequal in diameter, although not elongated, but alters in shape and size in its progress to the lungs, before its devarication into the two lung-pipes.

Dr. Latham gives the details of his remarks on this subject, in twenty seven species of birds; in all of which, the structure of the windpipe deviates from the common shape. He has found instances of the first kind of deviation in birds of different genera, but of the second only in some species of the two genera *Anas* and *Merganser*.

Observations on bituminous Substances, with a Description of the Varieties of the elastic Bitumen; by Charles Hatchett, Esq.—The Bovey coal, and the elastic bitumen of Derbyshire, are the two chief objects of this paper; and the observations which it contains, on the other bituminous substances, seem to be introduced with the view of explaining the nature of these two objects in a perspicuous manner; connecting them at the same time with the whole system of the bitumens, their origin and modifications. We cannot but praise the judgment of the author, in thus enlarging the views of the reader and avoiding repetitions.

The Bovey coal, both from its analysis and from its comparison with the Surturbrand of Iceland, Mr. Hatchett is inclined to believe was produced from putrified vegetables; in which all the vegetable principles had been separated by the process of putrifaction: but the carbon, though developed by this natural operation, had not been dissipated by the free access of the air. The elastic bitumen of Derbyshire, of which he describes two species and twenty two varieties, very much resembles, in elasticity and colour, the Caoutchouc, or Indian rubber. When melted, it loses the elastic property, and a quantity of gaz is disengaged from it. What is melted

is

is either *petroleum*, or mineral tar, mineral pitch, or *asphaltum*, according to the different varieties. Hence the suspicion justly arises, that the elastic property might be occasioned by the interposition of some elastic fluid with the parts of the bitumen; since, by melting it, the elastic fluid is liberated, and the mass loses that fine spongy texture which is probably the cause of the elastic property.

Though this paper contains no chemical analysis, yet that profound skill in chemistry, for which its author is celebrated, pervades the whole of it.

An Account of the Jumping Mouse of Canada—Dipus Canadensis; by Major-General Davies.—As the species of the Jerboa kind, hitherto known, inhabit countries near the tropics, or within them, it is curious to find one species of it inhabiting a climate so intensely cold as Canada. Though its conformation classes it with the Jerboas, its habits are affected by the nature of the climate. During the cold season, from September to May, the jumping mouse lies in a dormant state, like other animals of cold countries.

Observations on the Flowering of certain Plants; by Professor Martyn.—Every botanist is acquainted with the *Horologium Floræ* of Linné; to which these valuable remarks of Professor Martyn relate. The Professor observed, from the middle of August 1796 to the beginning of October following, the periodical expansion of the flowers of the *anagallis arvensis*, *oenothera biennis*, and *hibiscus trionum*, &c. comparing the modifications of this phenomenon with those of the weather, the barometer, and the thermometer. He describes also the curious movements which accompany the flowering in the last two plants.

Remarks on some foreign Species of Orobanche; by James Edward Smith, M.D. &c. &c.—The depth of botanical knowledge, which generally characterizes the publications of this celebrated naturalist, is also conspicuous in the paper now before us; in which he demonstrates that the first species of this genus, in Linné's distribution, viz. the *orobanche levis*, is a non-entity; and that its history has been fabricated partly from synonyms belonging to the *orchis abortiva*, and partly from those of a real *orobanche* unknown to Linné; the characters of which do not answer either to the name or description of the *orobanche levis*. After the examination of this imaginary species, he describes two real species, growing in foreign countries, viz. the *orobanche caryophyllacea*, and *gracilis*.

A Description of five British Species of Orobanche; by the Rev. Charles Sutton, B.D. &c.—After having examined the curious germination of this genus of plants, Mr. Sutton describes

scribes and critically examines the *orabanche major*, *elatior*, *minor*, *cœrulea*, and *ramosa*; all growing in Great Britain.

Account of a minute Ichneumon; by Dr. George Shaw. This truly microscopical insect, the *ichneumon punctum*, seems to differ from the *ichneumon atomus* of Linné: but Dr. Shaw declines to decide the question, and contents himself with marking the difference and giving the description.

Description of the Phasma Dilatatum; by Mr. John Parkinson. —This curious insect is supposed to be a native of Asia.

Description of the Blight of Wheat, Uredo Frumenti; by A. B. Lambert, Esq.—Every minute circumstance which relates to the history and culture of wheat has a considerable degree of importance attached to it; and therefore this paper is deserving of attention.

Ammophila, A new Genus of Insects in the Class Hymenoptera; by the Rev. William Kirby.—The importance of the parts commonly called *instrumenta cibaria*, in order to discriminate the genera of insects, is generally allowed by all entomologists, since Fabricius built his system chiefly on them. Mr. Kirby, having dissected several insects of the class *hymenoptera*, found the tongue and its accompanying parts very different in the *apis*, the *vespa*, and the *sphex*; and in the *sphex sabulosa*, or sand wasp, very different from all the preceding. This observation led him to the institution of this new genus, of which he gives the natural and essential characters, together with the description of four distinct species. It appears to be very fairly distinguished from the *apis* by the bifid tongue, and by the antennæ filiform in every sex; from the *vespa*, by the direction of the rostrum, the form of the eyes, and the plane surface of the wings; from the *sphex*, by the direction and length of the rostrum, and the bifid tongue. This last characteristic, with the number of articulations, and form of the antennæ, prevent this insect from being confounded with the *ichneumons*.

The Characters of twenty new Genera of Plants; by Dr. James Edward Smith.—Some years ago, Dr. Smith began to publish, periodically, the Botany of New Holland. The interruption of this design we cannot but lament; and it is to be hoped that he may yet resume the work. In the mean time, he here gives the characters of nineteen new genera from that distant country; together with the *afzelia*, a new genus from tropical Africa.

Further Observations on the Wheat Insect, in a Letter to the Rev. Dr. Samuel Goodenough; by Thomas Marsham, Esq.—In the third volume of the Linnean Transactions, Mr. Marsham had given an account of an insect which, in the year 1795, attacked the ears of the wheat in several parts of England. His entomological

nological skill persuaded him that this larva belonged to some small musca, and resembled very much those aphidivorous larvæ, which produce one particular family of the muscæ: but unfortunately none of the naturalists, who curiously observed this insect, could succeed in breeding the fly which this small larva is destined to produce. In this paper, Mr. Marsham communicates the observations of Mr. Markwick, with some remarks on them.

History of Tipula Tritici and Ichneumon Tipulæ, with some Observations upon other Insects that attend the Wheat; in a Letter to Thomas Marsham, Esq. by the Rev. William Kirby.—A close observation of the metamorphosis of the above-mentioned larva has enabled Mr. Kirby to furnish Mr. Marsham, the institutor of the researches concerning that insect, with a considerable portion of satisfactory information. The larva belongs to the *tipula tritici*: but a little ichneumon lays its eggs on this caterpillar, and kills it. In consequence, two different insects come forth from these larvæ, and the destruction which the first species might occasion is kept in due bounds by the efforts of the second.

Account of a new Species of Muscicapa, from New South Wales; by Major-General Davies.

Observations on the genus Pausus, and Description of a new Species; by Dr. Afzelius, of the University of Upsal.—The etymology of this generic name, as explained by Dr. Afzelius, is extremely interesting to all the admirers of the great Linné. It is derived from the Greek word παύσις, signifying a pause, a cessation, a rest. Linné, old and infirm, saw in the year 1775, when this genus was first constituted, no possibility of any longer continuing his glorious career; and wishing to put a stop to his exertions, he gave this name to the last of the insects which he ever described. Though several naturalists have spoken of this insect, yet, from the blunders which they have committed, Dr. Afzelius justly suspects that none of them saw it, except Linné, Thunberg, and Fabricius.

This paper contains not only a full description of all the parts which may serve to constitute the genus, but the two species of it are described at full length, in English and in Latin. The first species is the old Linnean; the second is a non-descript brought by Dr. Afzelius from Sierra Leona.

Observations on the British species of Bromus, with introductory remarks on the composition of a Flora Britannica; by Dr. James Edward Smith.—From these remarks on the composition of a British Flora, our expectations of Dr. Smith's exertions in the Flora Britannica, which he is now about to publish, rise very high; and supported as they are by the talents which he has

manifested in former publications, we are confident that this work will be as valuable as it was necessary. The examination of the difficult genus *Bromus*, and of twelve British species of it, which follows the remarks on the *Flora Britannica*, may be considered as a pattern of critical botany.

Some Corrections of the general description of Polytrichum rubellum, with an Account of another new Species of the same genus. By Mr. Menzies.—In this supplementary paper, (see page 365,) the new species described is the *Polytrichum subulatum*, gathered in New Zealand by Mr. Nelson.

An account of the Vth volume is preparing for our next Number.

ART. V. *An Account of the Operations carried on for accomplishing a Trigonometrical Survey of England and Wales; from the Commencement, in the Year 1784, to the End of the Year 1796. Begun under the Direction of the Royal Society, and continued by Order of the Honourable Board of Ordnance. First published in, and now revised from, the Philosophical Transactions, by Captain William Mudge, F. R. S. and Mr. Isaac Dalby. Vol. I. Illustrated with 22 Copper-plates. 4to. pp. 457. 1l. 8s. Boards. Faden. 1799.*

THE memoirs relative to the trigonometrical survey being published only in the Transactions of the Royal Society, and consequently not generally accessible, Mr. Faden has been induced to re-print in a separate work whatever has been published on that subject; and the arrangement of the several materials of this work has been entrusted to Captain Mudge and Mr. Dalby. Concerning the alterations made by them in the original papers, we are thus informed in the preface:

‘ In proceeding to narrate the innovations made in the original papers, we shall begin with observing that, the principal articles, as well as the plates, have been respectively numbered in succession, for the conveniency of reference during the reprinting of the work. No material alterations will be found in General Roy’s Account of the Measurement on Hounslow Heath, if we except a correction of about eight inches in the reduction of the base, which was 27404.7 feet, instead of 27404.01. For this reason, all the sides of the principal triangles to the xivth and the distances depending on them, in the account of the operation in 1787, 1788, are reduced in the proportion of 27404.7 to 27404.2; the latter being a mean of the two measurements (p. 138). The other deductions, to the eastward, are derived from the mean distance of Hollingborn Hill and Fairlight Down, resulting from both bases (p. 142). This second account, however, follows the original, with a few variations, till Art. 57, excepting the reduction of the base of verification (Art. 25.) which is corrected, and given in another form. What is inserted between xiiith and xivth triangles, with the remainder of the same Article after the xxvth triangle, are additions. The triangles on

the other side of the Channel, in Pl. XIV. which were numbered from xxxvi. to xlv. are omitted in the text, as M. M. Cassini, Méchain, and Legendre have now published their own corrected account, entitled "*Exposé des Opérations faites en France en 1787, pour la Jonction des Observatoires de Paris et de Greenwich*;" but what was necessary for the triangular connection, is taken from that publication. From this Article to the 79th, the whole, but two or three pages, is written *de novo*, and, in some respects, may be considered as an abridgment: nothing, however, is omitted but what appeared either unnecessary, or not immediately connected with the principal design. What relates to the meridional degree, resulting from the combined operation, is much more copious. And, in the Article on the difference of meridians of Greenwich and Paris, an answer is given to some objections of M. Lalande. The Longitude of Paris, in this Article, is $2^{\circ} 19' 51''$, which exceeds that in the original publication, or $2^{\circ} 19' 42''$, this latter being computed with the perpendicular degree, as derived from the operation in Kent (Art. 68.); but it cannot be considered so accurate as the other result, for the reasons given in p. 167. 303. That 61182 fathoms is, very nearly, the length of a degree of a great circle perpendicular to the meridian in latitude $50^{\circ} 41'$, cannot be doubted, since the observations at Dunnoose and Beachy Head (Art. 102.) were made with great care, and are sufficiently numerous: but, the method of determining differences of longitude by angular measurement being totally new, it must, as a matter of course, rest on its own principles, till comparisons can be drawn from similar operations. Were other degrees perpendicular to the meridian, or of longitude, measured in remote latitudes, it might, perhaps, enable us to distinguish among the different meridional degrees already obtained, those which ought to be rejected, in order to reconcile the greatest number of results from both methods of operation, to some regular figure of the earth. In M. Cassini de Thury's book, *Le Meridien vérifié*, we find an account of the first arc of longitude, which seems to have been measured with tolerable care. The operation was performed in lat. $43^{\circ} 32'$, on a distance of about 97 miles between the stations Cette and St. Victoire (lying nearly east and west) in the south of France: the distance being ascertained by means of a chain of triangles, the times of the instantaneous explosion of gunpowder, fired at a central situation, were noted at the stations, and thence the degree of longitude was inferred, being 44358 fathoms; which, however, appears not to have been considered as conclusive by the French mathematicians.

The rules in Art. 72, for computing the mean refractions and relative heights are, in substance, the same with those given in the account of 1795 and 1796: they are shorter and much more direct than those which are given for that purpose in the original account. The corrections in the secondary triangles, with the bearings of the stations, (Art. 59.) and most of the additions in the latter part of Art. 57, are taken from the remarks in the second part of the Philosophical Transactions for 1790. And to those secondary triangles are now added the bearings, with the computed latitudes and longitudes of 32 of the intersected objects.

The note p. 5 is, perhaps, unnecessarily retained, as it seems to allude to the Paper published by Doctor Maskelyne two years after in the Philosophical Transactions for 1787.

The accounts of the Survey, from 1791 to 1796, are printed from the originals, without any other alterations, but such as were deemed necessary for giving the whole an appearance of uniformity, as far as the different parts would admit. The variations, however, principally consist in transferring Articles 113; 146, from the latter to the former of the two accounts. In our paper of 1795 and 1796, it will be found that, the distances of some of the intersected objects, from the meridian and perpendicular of Greenwich, vary, in a trifling degree, from those given in the account of 1796. These differences arise from a part of the former computations having been made with 27404.7 feet, the length of the base on Hounslow Heath as given by General Roy, and those which are at present spoken of, with 27404.2 feet, the mean of the two measurements, Art. 172: These refinements do not, of course, materially affect the conclusions in that part of our former work, to which we refer.

The latitudes and longitudes of the stations in the Survey of 1795 and 1796, as well as the objects intersected from them, do not appear in the original Account. When that Paper was drawn up, there were not sufficient data for computing those arguments: but, we have since observed the direction of the meridian at the stations on Blackdown in Dorsetshire, Buttershill in Devonshire, and St. Agnes' Beacon in Cornwall. These observations will enable us to supply this omission in the next Account we present to the Royal Society. With respect to the Plates, the XVth is entirely a new one, and the XXth is reduced to its present size, from that given in the first Account, for the purpose of commodiously folding into the volume.

Of this work, since the several parts have already appeared before the public, a critical examination will now be expected from us. The volume is handsomely printed, and the plates, which are very numerous, are well executed. This first part contains, a Measurement of the Base on Hounslow Heath, in 1784: Trigonometrical Operations, in 1787, 1788: Trigonometrical Survey, 1791, 1794: Trigonometrical Survey, 1795, 1796.

ART. VI. *Two Successive Tours throughout the whole of Wales, with several of the adjacent English Counties; so as to form a comprehensive View of the Picturesque Beauty, the peculiar Manners, and the fine Remains of Antiquity, in that interesting Part of the British Island.* By Henry Skrine, Esq. 8vo. pp. 280. Gs. Boards. Elmsley and Bremner. 1798.

Those who have read Mr. Skrine's tours in England and Scotland, which were noticed in our 19th vol. N.S. p. 322: will not need any particular recommendation of this work.

The

The author is an instructive and amusing traveller, who directs our attention to those objects which are most important and interesting, and whose reflections are judicious and entertaining. Nothing seems to have escaped his notice, that could be deemed worthy of selection and remark; and he has furnished a volume which will serve as a very useful directory to those who wish to make the tour either of North or South Wales, or of those parts of England which lie upon the borders of the Principality. For the information of such persons, and in justice to the author, (whose work we have accidentally overlooked for a considerable time,) we shall select the sketches which he has given of the extent of each of his tours; and we shall close the article with an extract or two from his descriptive character of the inhabitants of Wales.

The first of these tours (says Mr. Skrine) is devoted to the description of South Wales, and begins with the views from the Cotswold hills in Gloucestershire, where the approach to that country naturally opens. After coasting the Severn from Gloucester to Newham, and traversing the forest of Dean, it pursues the navigation of the Wye from Ross to Monmouth and Chepstowe, and after visiting the two passage houses on the Bristol Channel, pervades Monmouthshire in various parts, so as to include nearly the whole of that fine county, with its capital. From Abergavenny it enters Brecknockshire, and after pursuing the Uske almost to its source beyond Brecknock, it descends by the works of Merthyr-Tydvil to the Pont-i-Prydd, in the vale of Taaffe in Glamorganshire, from whence by Caerphilli Castle, crossing again through a corner of Monmouthshire, it takes the coast road with little deviations by Cardiffe, Cowbridge, and Swansea, to Tenby in Pembrokeshire. That extreme county, unlike the rest of South Wales both in its appearance and its inhabitants, offers a variety of objects in the scenery attendant on Milford-Haven, the towns and castles of Pembroke and Haverfordwest, and the superb ruins of St. David's. From thence the coast is pursued as far as Fisguard, and the tour then takes an inland direction by Narbeth and Caermarthen, the two fine vales of the Towey, and the pass of Cwm-Dwr to Brecknock; it then returns to Llanymdover by Builth, Llandrindod and Llanwrtd Wells, and enters Cardiganshire at Llanbeder. From Cardigan, after visiting Kilgarren Castle, it again reaches the coast, which it follows with little variation to Aberystwith, from whence it turns inland by the banks of the Rhydol and the Ystwith to the romantic scenery about the Devil's bridge and Hawod; then crossing the mountains from Cwnystwith to Rhyabergowy, it penetrates through the interior of Radnorshire by Knighton, Presteigne, Kington, and Radnor, and approaches England by the course of the Wye through its beautiful vale from Builth to the Hay. The rich plains of Herefordshire succeed, and the reader is conducted by Hereford and Ledbury over the Malvern hills to Worcester, where this part of the travel naturally ends.

'The tour of North Wales begins at that city, and taking a short compass of the vale of Evesham, includes many of the ornamented seats and towns of Warwickshire, Worcestershire, and Staffordshire, with Bridgnorth and the works of Colebrook-dale, in its approach to Shrewsbury. It then makes a slight deviation to visit the beautiful display of Hawkestone, and crossing the plain of Shropshire, enters North Wales from Oswestry, near Chirk Castle; by which place, Wynne-stay, and Wrexham, it reaches the curious old city of Chester. The coast and the interior of the little county of Flint succeed, and from Holywell the descent is made into the beautiful vale of Clwydd, extending from the South of Ruthyn to Denbigh, and the sea beyond Saint Asaph. The vale and river of the Conway are then traced from its mouth to Llanrwst and the falls among the mountains near its source, and the return is made on the opposite bank to Conway. The pass of Penman-mawr and Bangor ferry conduct the reader into Anglesea, where Beaumaris, Holy-Head, and the Paris mountain, form the principal objects. The Menai straits then lead to Caernarvon, from whence an expedition is made toward the horn of the Caernarvonshire coast which commands the bay of Cardigan, and the towns of Pwllhelli, Crickheith, and Penmorva.—Great part of the Snowdonia is afterwards traversed, and the enchanting valley of Festiniog is approached by the stupendous rocks and pass of the Pont-Aberglasslyn; from the charming spot of Tan-y-bwlch, excursions are made to visit several points in the valley, and the proud castle of Harlech on the coast. Dolgelly is then approached by various grand objects in the wilds of Merionethshire, and the estuary of the Mawdoch from thence to Barmouth, discloses a wonderful display beneath the northern base of the mighty mountain of Cader-Idris.—The tour then takes an inland direction by the lake of Bala, the romantic territory of Owen Glendwr near Corwen, and the beautiful valley of the Dee to Llangollen, with the picturesque ruin of Vale Crucis Abbey. A long tract over the Denbighshire Berouin afterwards conducts the reader to Llanrhaidr and the cataract of Pistill Rhaidr; by Llanvilling it approaches the stream of the upper Severn, and its banks are pursued through the rich vale of Montgomeryshire to Newtown and Llanidloea, near its source. Passing near the origin of the Wye, and almost under the base of Plinlimmon, this tour meets the former of South Wales at the Devil's bridge in Cardiganshire, and making a little curve by the Ystwith and Tivy to visit Strata Florida Abbey, recrosses it to reach Llanbadern Vawr; soon after which it re-enters North Wales, taking a sweep by the banks of the Dovey to Machynleth, Dinasmonthy, and the mountains which form the Southern base of Cader-Idris.—Turning inland again at Mallwydd, it passes the hills by Cann's office and Llanvair to return to the Severn, and crossing its vale to Montgomery, quits North Wales finally to approach Bishop's Castle and Ludlow in Shropshire, from whence it pursues the direct line towards Radnorshire and Brecknockshire, by Leominster and Weobly in Herefordshire, thus completing the circle.'

In expressing his sentiments concerning the difference which subsists between the respective inhabitants of North and South
Wales,

Wales, as to their disposition and manner, the author observes (p. 267), that

‘ The frank and earnest temper of the Welsh, aided by a natural degree of characteristic pride, kept up the spirit of these distinctions long after the causes of them had subsided; and few nations have shewn, in modern times at least, so strong an attachment to the customs, the traditions, and the long-traced descent of their ancestors. Insensibly, however, in the lapse of time, are these points of variation from their neighbours sinking into oblivion, their asperities have been softened down by mutual intercourse, and what remains is far more pleasing and curious than offensive to a stranger.—The provincial divisions have long since ceased to present any material difference in manners, except where peculiar circumstances (as in almost the whole of Pembrokeshire, and a part of the coast of Glamorganshire) have introduced a totally different people. Even the greater separation between the inhabitants of North and South Wales has in a considerable degree disappeared, their manners being so blended that, except the uniform and almost exclusive attachment to the music of the harp, it is now difficult to distinguish the few traces of originality which have been so long boasted by the native of North Wales as proofs of his superiority.’—

‘ Refinement has not yet attained to so high a pitch in Wales, that the social virtues should be extinguished, or even much obscured by apathy: among these virtues may justly be reckoned that singular attachment of its inhabitants to each other, which prevails most eminently in private families, and universally in the whole community.’

However, as refinement increases,

‘ The gentlemen of Wales, following the example of those of England, desert their proper stations and lose that high estimation which the imposing presence of an active and upright landlord has transmitted to posterity. A more useful or dignified being indeed can hardly exist than a native man of landed property in Wales, living with credit in the mansion-house of his ancestors, and exercising his talents for the general good as an upright magistrate, a friendly neighbour, and a liberal benefactor.

‘ High spirit, energetic animation, and courage, may be accounted strong points of the Welsh character; and these, when properly exhibited, cannot fail to create respect and admiration.’—

‘ Hospitality, that engaging affection, which may take root in every nation, but which retreats in general from the seats of opulence and luxury, is peculiarly adapted to the disposition of the Welsh, and wherever an opportunity has occurred, I have often witnessed its fascinating influence.’—‘ Open, ingenuous, and considerate, the native gentleman of Wales dispenses freely around him the benefits he receives from his position, and supports the character he derives from his predecessors by a well-timed and liberal attention to all who fall within his sphere of action.’

The few defects that appear among the valuable qualities of the Welsh, Mr. Skrine candidly traces to the excess of virtues,

'and, as the general civilization increases, they will no longer be observable.'

'Hence has the natural character for animation sometimes partaken too much of warmth of temper, and a hastiness of expression has gained the Welshman the reputation of being quarrelsome. Conviviality in too great an extreme has in some societies led to habitual intemperance, the minute attention to ancient customs has often retarded improvement, and the veneration shewn to a long line of ancestors has occasionally degenerated into the stiffness of family pride. The higher orders of society have already, in a great measure, emancipated themselves from these shackles, but the lower are yet slow in following so laudable an example. Among them the prevalent vice of drunkenness is apt to foster the seeds of every other evil; a litigious spirit, too often fomented industriously by the arts of chicanery, supersedes frequently the natural tendency to fair dealing; an habitual idleness shuts up the sources of industry; and a want of attention to cleanliness, encumbering poverty, degrades it by the squalid appearance of want, raggedness, and disease. These shades in the national character, which are by no means so general as they have been, already fading imperceptibly beneath the sun-shine of prosperity, and the introduction of arts and manufactures, must ultimately yield to that enlightened spirit which arises from an enlarged intercourse with other countries, and the regular progress of improvement in every branch of industry.'

The author closes his comparative view of the two principal districts of Wales in the following terms:

'Thus have nature, art, and even the vestiges of decayed grandeur, adorned both parts of this interesting portion of our island with peculiar and mutual advantages; for the increasing improvement of each happy tract we may be allowed to hope, from the continued favour of Providence, and the successful industry of man. So, when that happy period arrives, in which all local distinctions of its parts are lost in the perfection of the whole, the impetuous spirit of the Welsh, corrected by, and correcting in its turn, the tempered perseverance of the English, may contribute to confirm, and prolong to future ages, the energetic respectability of the British character.'

Mr. Skrine very properly recommends to the attention of the traveller, Carey's large map of England and Wales, Evans's Survey of North Wales, Lord Lyttelton's elegant but concise Descriptions, Wyndham's pleasing Tour in Wales, and Pennant's Work, which he justly denominates accurate and excellent. He has also introduced a descriptive table of the contents of each chapter by way of index, the omission of which in his former work was certainly a defect.

ART. VII. *Reports of Adjudged Cases in the Court of Common Pleas*, during the Time Lord Chief Justice Willes presided in that Court; together with some few Cases of the same Period determined in the House of Lords, Court of Chancery, and Exchequer Chamber. Taken from the MSS. of Lord Chief Justice Willes, with Notes and References to prior and subsequent Decisions, by Charles Durnford, of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. Folio. pp. 750. 1l. 18s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

WE have often had occasion to complain of the number of unnecessary and even useless law-books, which issue from the press; and we have frequently been under the disagreeable necessity of expressing our censure on this subject, in terms of considerable severity. In consulting such publications, the members of an enlightened and laborious profession are unprofitably occupied, and they rise from the perusal of them with unavailing regret for having bestowed any attention on their contents.—Dissatisfaction and disappointment not unfrequently attend our labours: but sometimes, to renew our good humour, and to dispel our disgust, we are presented with a work of real merit, by which our understandings are improved, and the stock of our information is enlarged. Of this description is the present volume; which we have read with unmixed satisfaction, both on account of the deserved celebrity of the author, and of the well-known judgment and accuracy of the editor, by whose diligent perseverance this production is now given to the world.

Chief Justice Willes presided in the Court of Common Pleas from Easter Term, in the tenth year of George the Second, 1737, to Trinity Term in the thirty-second year of the same king, 1758; and during the long period of twenty one years, he discharged the duties of a difficult and important station with undiminished credit to himself, and to the satisfaction of those who applied to him for justice. The publication of his decisions is calculated to continue his name as a lawyer in as high estimation in succeeding ages, as it was considered in his own time.

The MSS from which this volume is composed are unquestionably, Mr. Durnford observes, the hand-writing of the Chief Justice; who bequeathed them to his son, the late Mr. Justice Willes, by whom they were left to his son, the late Mr. Edward Willes; and on whose death, they came into the possession of his two surviving brothers, who entrusted the present editor with the publication.—Mr. D.'s various merits as a reporter are too universally known, and too constantly experienced, to require any praise on this occasion from us. Seven folio volumes, containing the decisions of the Court

Court of King's Bench for the last fifteen years, bear ample and unequivocal testimony to his unremitting diligence; and the discriminating knowledge and nice precision, with which they are executed, justly entitle him to a distinguished place among this description of authors: incontestably proving, also, that he has liberally discharged the debt which *every man*, according to Lord Coke, *owes to his profession*. As an editor, Mr. Durnford now appears before the public; and to his discretion is entrusted the reputation of that distinguished lawyer, whose name is prefixed to the present work.

On the subject of this volume, and of the sources from which it is derived, the editor shall speak for himself:

' The only hope I can indulge in becoming the Editor of this work is that the late season in which it is published may have enabled me to render it more valuable by references, in the notes, to the latest decisions in our courts. But this collection now appears in a more imperfect state than probably it would if either Mr. Justice Willes or the late Mr. E. Willes had published it; as many of the determinations of the Court of Common Pleas during the latter part of the time when the Chief Justice presided there are not now to be found, though it is evident from certain marks on the paper books of those cases, that he had written out the judgments of the court which he publicly delivered. This loss is however in some instances supplied by the manuscripts of the late Mr. Justice Wm. Fortescue, and by a copy of some notes taken by the late Mr. J. Abney, in the hand writing of his clerk, which I have added in the notes, the former of which were in the collection of the Lord Chief Justice Willes, and the latter were obligingly sent to me by Mr. Justice Lawrence.

' In examining the collection of Lord Chief Justice Willes's manuscripts, it is not (I trust) expected that I should publish the whole: I have selected such cases as appeared to me of the greatest importance. All those respecting the practice of the Court (except in very few instances) I have rejected altogether, not only because they were not of sufficient consequence to be printed in a work of this kind, but also because the decisions in many of them are already in print.

' *The body of this work* will be found to consist of four classes of cases:

' 1st, Those which are taken verbatim from the Lord Chief Justice's manuscripts; and they are either the judgments of the court which he publicly delivered, containing as well his own abridgment of the record or special case as the reasons on which the opinion of the court was founded, or cases of which he wrote an account in his own note books after the cases had been determined.

' 2dly, The judgments of the court which he gave, without his own abridgment of the records; the records in which cases I have abstracted either from the original records or from the paper books.

' 3dly, Cases taken from short notes of the Lord Chief Justice's manuscripts, the records being abridged by myself.

' 4thly,

' 4thly, Those where nothing more appeared on the Lord Chief Justice's paper books than simply "judgment for the plaintiff" or "for the defendant" &c. the records of which cases I have abridged, and the opinions of the court I have taken from other quarters and added in the notes.

' Throughout the whole it may be observed that the language of the Lord Chief Justice is printed between inverted commas.

' *The notes to this work* (except where they consist of references to cases already in print and to some very modern decisions) may also be arranged in four classes:

' 1st, Those of the Lord Chief Justice, distinguished by "MS. Lord Chief Justice Willes."

' 2dly, Manuscript cases collected from various quarters, in the possession of the Lord Chief Justice, to many of which he referred himself; and they are distinguished thus "MS. Coll. Lord Chief Justice Willes."

' 3dly, Manuscript notes of Mr. Baron (afterwards Mr. Justice) Wm. Fortescue, in his own hand writing; thus marked "MS. Mr. Justice Wm. Fortescue."

' 4thly, Notes taken by the late Mr. Justice Abney, afterwards copied by his clerk; thus distinguished "MS. Abney J."

The correctness and authenticity of these Reports cannot be questioned, when it is known that most of them were written by the venerable author for the purpose of making them public, and may be said to have been published by himself to the profession from the Bench. They are, in many instances, the judgments which he delivered; and they are therefore more worthy of dependance than the notes which could have been taken by any uninterested writer, however great might be his accuracy and his talents. To several of the cases, allusions have been made in other works, particularly in Buller's *Nisi Prius*: but they are now given with more minuteness, and carry conviction more immediately to the mind of the reader, than in any other report of them which has appeared.

To enable the public to judge of the manner in which the work is executed, and to shew how careful and vigilant the system of English jurisprudence is in every particular which concerns the important duties of a jurymen, we shall transcribe the Report of *Norman against Beaumont*, C. P. M. 18 Geo. 2. in which case a verdict was set aside, because one of the jurymen was not returned on the *Nisi Prius* panel, but answered to the name of a person who was.

' *NORMAN against BEAUMONT.*

' The cause was tried at the last Suffolk assizes, and one Richard Shepherd was sworn upon the jury who gave a verdict for the plaintiff, damages 1s. It was an action of trespass *quare clausum fregit*; and the Judge certified that the trespass was voluntary and malicious, which

which shewed plainly that he was not dissatisfied * with the verdict. But upon an affidavit of Shepherd himself that he was not returned upon the nisi prius panel, and that he answered to the name of Richard Geater a person returned on the panel, we had made a rule nisi † for a new trial, and a rule against Shepherd to shew cause why an attachment ‡ should not go against him, as he knew that he was not returned and yet suffered himself to be sworn on the jury, and as it looked like a trick in him in order to set aside the verdict if it should be given against his friend.

‘ And now Prime Serjt. shewed cause against the rule; and

‘ Leeds Serjt. shewed cause for Shepherd.

‘ Prime Serjt. insisted that the Court could take no notice of any thing but what appeared on the record; and that as all appeared to be right on the record, the Court could not take notice of any thing that appeared in the affidavits. And he cited a case of Bolman v. Crowle in *B. R.* where the defendant paid 24l. 10s. in court, upon which a rule was obtained according to the course of that court that it should be struck out of the declaration, but it seems it is never struck out: but the rule is produced at the trial, and then if the jury do not give more damages for the plaintiff than the money which is paid in, the verdict is always given for the defendant: but if the jury are of opinion to find more, they only give a verdict for the overplus. But in that case though the plaintiff had taken the money out of court, yet the rule not being produced at the trial the jury gave a verdict for the plaintiff for 24l. 17s. 6d. in which the 24l. 10s. was agreed to be included: but Prime said that upon a motion in *B. R.* for the defendant either that the plaintiff should refund the 24l. 10s. or that the verdict might be amended, the Court said they could not go out of the record, and therefore gave the defendant no relief. He insisted likewise that this objection was only matter of challenge and could not be taken advantage of after the verdict; and also that this was cured by the statute 32 Hen. 8. c. 30. s. 1. || And as it appeared that this was not a verdict against evidence, but plainly to the satisfaction of the Judge, he hoped that the Court would not strain a point to set aside this verdict.

‘ Leeds Serjt. read a second affidavit of Shepherd's, in which he swore that he was a young man and was never on a jury before; that

‘ * But it has since been holden that if it appear on the trial that the trespass was committed after notice, and the jury give less than 40s. damages, the Judge is bound under the statute 8 & 9 W. 3. c. 11. s. 4. to certify that the trespass was wilful and malicious, in order to entitle the plaintiff to his full costs. *Swinerton v. Jarvis*, *E. 22 Geo. 3. C. B.*; and *Reynold v. Edwards*, 6 D. & E. 11.’

‘ † On Wednesday, October 24th, in the same term.’

‘ ‡ In the case of *Wats v. Brains*, *Cro. Eliz. 779.* several of the jury were fined and imprisoned for misconduct.’

‘ || Which enacts that “if any issue be tried by the oath of twelve or more indifferent men, in any of the King's courts of record; then the justice or justices by whom judgment thereof ought to be given shall proceed and give judgment in the same,” notwithstanding any mispleading &c.’

he was returned as a jurymen at that assizes on the crown side, and not knowing the difference was sworn in this nisi prius cause; and that by reason of a great noise in the court he thought he was the person who was called; and being called again in another cause the mistake was discovered; and he cleared himself from any imputation of having done what he did by design; so the rule was discharged as against him.

Bootle Serjt. for the rule insisted that the statute 32 Hen. 8. did not at all affect this case; and relied very much on the statute 3 Geo. 2. c. 25 *, which says that twelve of those who are returned shall be sworn, and that they shall try the cause. And he cited the case of *Fines v. North*, Sir Wm. Jon. 302. Mich. 8 Car. 1. where upon error from a judgment in B. C., the error assigned was that but 23 were returned on the venire, and the habeas corpora was awarded against those 23 and one Lambert, and eleven and Lambert were sworn and found for the plaintiff; and the whole Court held that this was ill and not helped by any statute, because one was sworn who was not returned by the sheriff, and they reversed the judgment.

We were all of opinion that the statute 32 Hen. 8. did not extend to the present case, nor to any mistakes in the jury process, for if it did, there had been no occasion for making the statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 23 †; the words of which statute likewise shew that the present mistake was such an one as was not proper to be remedied.

We were of opinion likewise that this could be no cause of challenge. It could not be a challenge to the array, for there was no objection to the array; nor to the poll, for there was no objection to Richard Geater the person returned. But this was an extrinsic objection, not appearing on the face of the poll. A challenge to a

* The eighth section directs sheriffs &c. to annex to the venire facias a panel of not less than 48 or more than 72 jurors, containing their christian and surnames, additions and places of abode, &c. Then the 11th section enacts that the name of each of those persons shall be written on a distinct piece of paper and put into a box, and shall be drawn &c. "until 12 persons be drawn who shall appear, and after all causes of challenge shall be allowed as fair and indifferent: and the said 12 persons so first drawn and appearing, and approved as indifferent, their names being marked in the panel, and they being sworn, shall be the jury to try the said cause" &c.

† The second section of that statute enacts that no judgment shall be stayed or reversed "by reason that the venire facias, habeas corpora, or distringas, is awarded to a wrong officer upon any insufficient suggestion; or by reason the view is in some part misawarded or sued out of more places or of fewer places than it ought to be, so as some one place be right named; or by reason that any of the jury which tried the said issue is misnamed, either in the surname or addition, in any of the said writs, or in any return upon any of the said writs, so as upon examination it be proved to be the same man that was meant to be returned; or by reason that there is no return upon any of the said writs, so as a panel of the names of jurors be returned and annexed to the said writs" &c.

juryman supposes him capable of serving on the jury if the objection be answered: but Richard Shepherd was no juryman at all. And as to the matter not appearing on the record, we said that in cases of this sort where the objection could not appear on the record we always admitted of affidavits; as in respect to a misbehaviour of any of the jury, or any declaration made by any of them * either before or after the verdict to shew that a juryman was partial. And we thought that the statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 13. and 3 Geo. 2. c. 25. very much strengthened the plaintiff's objection.

' My Brother Abney said that Blackmore's case, 8 Co. 156. plainly shewed that this was a mistake not amendable even after verdict.

' And I cited the case of Hassett v. Payne, Cro. Eliz. 256. M. 33 & 34 Eliz. B. R. where on an attaint it appeared that one George Ellinger was returned on the venire, but one Gregory Ellinger was named in the habeas corpora and returned by that name and sworn on the jury; and it was holden by the whole Court that no attaint would lie, because there was no verdict, the trial being but by eleven.

' We were therefore all of opinion that the rule ought to be made absolute for setting aside the verdict, but we had a doubt about the costs. We thought it hard that either the plaintiff or the defendant should pay the costs, because neither of them was in any fault. We proposed that the costs should abide the event of the next trial; but the defendant would not consent to it, and we thought that we could not make such a rule unless both the parties consented. We desired that the case of Phillips v. Fowler †, E. 9 Geo. 2. in this court might be looked into to see what the Court did in that case in respect to costs, where they set aside the verdict for a very great misbehaviour in the jury, and we found upon inquiry that the Court at first made a rule for setting aside the verdict upon the defendant's paying the costs, but that afterwards the Court made a rule that the jury, who had grossly misbehaved themselves, should pay the costs on both sides.

' At last upon mature consideration we made the rule absolute for a new trial without costs on either side ‡.

—' N. My Brother Burnett said he thought that in this case even at common law there ought to have been a venire facias de novo, according to the old method of proceeding before these motions for new trials, and that in that case there would have been no costs; which was a further reason for our not directing any costs to be paid in the present case ||.'

* But the Court will not now receive the affidavit of a juror respecting the misconduct of the jurymen, *Vasie v. Delaval*, 1 D. & E. 11; though formerly such affidavits were received, *Parr v. Seames*, Barnes 438; and *Phillips v. Fowler*, *ib.* 441. the case above alluded to.

† Com. Rep. 525; and Barnes 441. where a verdict was set aside because the jury had cast lots.'

‡ In *Hale v. Cove*, 1 Str. 642, where the Court set aside the verdict on account of the misconduct of the jurymen, they ordered the costs to abide the event of the new trial.'

|| See the next case *Wray v. Thorn*.'

As we do not very frequently trespass on the patience of our readers by making large extracts from law books; and as we do not often meet with a work possessing so many recommendations to public notice as the present; we shall hope to be excused for the length of the preceding quotation, and to be farther allowed to introduce the case of *Wray* against *Thorn*, C. P. M. 18 Geo. 2. which immediately follows in the volume the case of *Norman* against *Beaumont*, and has a close connection with it in point of subject. In this latter case, the Court refused to set aside a verdict and to grant a new trial, because one of the jurors was named *Henry* in the venire, the habeas corpora, and the postea, when his real Christian name was *Harry*.

• *WRAY* against *THORN* and *HANCOCK*.

• This was an action of trespass quare clausum fregit, &c.

• The defendant justified under a right of way; and the plaintiff replied extra viam, on which the issue was joined, and a view had, and a verdict for the plaintiff, damages 1s.; and it was not pretended that it was a verdict against evidence. But Henry Luppincott of Alverdiscot, Esq. was returned on the venire by the name of Henry, and he is so named on the habeas corpora, the panel, and the postea, (there being a tales); and he was one of the viewers. But an affidavit was produced of John Thorn and Lewis Wise, in which Thorn swore that his right christian name was Harry; and Wise that he had taken a copy of the register, by which it appears that he was baptized by the name of Harry.

• A motion had been made* by Hussey Serjt. to set aside the verdict; and he cited Cro. Eliz. 222. *Fermor v. Dorrington*; Cro. Jac. 116. *Blunt and Farley v. Snedston*; Cro. Car. 202. *Downs v. Winterflood*; and 5 Co. 42. The Countess of Rutland's case. We were inclinable to make it good if possible, but made a rule nisi that the matter might be thoroughly spoken to and considered. And now Belfield Serjt. shewed cause against the rule.

• I gave my opinion in the following manner;

• This question can come only before a court for judgment in one of these four ways;

- By motion in arrest of judgment;
- By motion for an amendment;
- By motion for a new trial in this court; or
- By writ of error in a superior court.

• In order that I may be understood, I will in the first place state the present case. In the next place I will mention all the cases that I can find that seem to bear any resemblance to this. And in the last place I will give you my opinion on the present question.

• I then stated the case as before, and then proceeded to mention the cases in the books. The first case that I cited was Cro. Eliz. 57. *Displyn v. Spratt*, P. 29 Eliz. B. R. which was thus; Thomas Baker of D., was returned on the venire, in the distringas he was called Thomas Carter of D., and by that name sworn on the jury.

• * On Wednesday October 24th in the same term.

A motion

A motion was made in arrest of judgment, and a case cited where George Thompson was returned on the venire and Gregory Thompson was returned on the panel and sworn, and it was held to be a void verdict; for the Court said that there was a great deal of difference between a mistake in a christian name and a mistake in a surname; for a man may have two surnames but he can have but one christian name; but no judgment appears.

' In Cro. Eliz. 222 *Fermor v. Dorrington*, P. 33 Eliz. B. R. in an action for words, after verdict judgment was stayed, because Taverner was in the return to the venire, and Turnor in the distringas; and he attended and was sworn by the name of Turnor. A case was cited in the same case of Dousby v. Willott, where a juror was returned by the name of Gregory in the venire and in the distringas by the name of George, and he was sworn by that name, and judgment was arrested. Another case was cited out of the Exchequer, where one Mizaël was returned on the venire, and in the distringas it was Michael; both these were surnames; one Michael was sworn on the jury, and judgment was stayed for this reason. In the principal case the Court at first doubted, because the variance was in the surname, for the reasons before given; but afterwards resolved that the judgment should be stayed.

' In Cro. Eliz. 256. *Hassett v. Payne*, M. 33 & 34 Eliz. B. R. in an attaint it appeared that one George was named in the return to the venire, and in the distringas he was named Gregory, and so sworn; and held *per totam Curiam* that no attaint would lie, because no verdict, the trial being but by eleven. In Cro. Eliz. 258. *Cotton's case*, the same term, in an action for words it was J. S. of Abbotsan, in the return to the venire, and in the distringas J. S. of Abbasan, and ordered to be amended after a verdict. And in the same term between Mortimer and Oger it was De Hust in the return to the venire and De Hurst in the distringas; and on a motion in arrest of judgment held to be well enough, and the plaintiff had his judgment. In 5 Co. 42. *The Countess of Rutland's case*, M. 34 & 35 Eliz. B. R. a motion was made in arrest of judgment because Robert Moore was returned on the venire, and he was so named in the distringas; but in the panel before the justices of Nisi Prius he was named Robert Mawrey, and so he was named on the postea; and it was insisted that a stranger who was not returned was sworn on the jury: but, by the whole Court, if it can appear by examination that his right name was Robert Moore, so that he was well returned on the venire, and that the same man was returned and sworn, the postea may be amended. It was held otherwise in several cases there cited out of the Year-Books; but it was said in that case that now the law was that judgment should not be stayed, for that these discontinuances were aided by the stat. 32 Hen. 8. c. 30. and 18 Eliz. c. 14. But it was there said that even now if a juror be misnamed in the panel annexed to the venire, though he be rightly named in the subsequent process, it is not amendable, and that it was so held in *Codwell's case* *. M. 35 & 36 Eliz. B. R. It appeared in that case upon examination that it was the same man who was returned on the venire,

* 5 Co. 42. b. and 43. a.

and that his right name was Robert Moore; and for the reasons aforesaid by the opinion of the whole Court the postea was affirmed, and judgment given.

"In Danv. Abr. tit. "Amendment," p. 330. is the case of *Hidgo v. Payne*, 39 Eliz. B. R. where Tippet the true name was returned on the venire, but in the habeas corpora and distringas he was named Typper; yet if he be sworn and try the issue by his right name, it shall be amended; and said that the same was adjudged in *Marshall's case*, 40 Eliz. B. R., and in the case of *Atundel v. Blanchard*, Mich. 13 Jac. 1. But in the case of *Floyd v. Bethell*, T. 13 Jac. 1. B. R. there also cited, in the distringas the juror was Ap Pelf and one Ap Bell was sworn; and said that it could not be amended by the Court after the death of the sheriff; for it cannot be intended to be the same man, for they are different names in Wales where this trial was; but said that, if the sheriff who made the return had been living, he might have amended it. Several more cases are there cited; and in p. 331. where the mistake is in the surname; but if right in the return to the venire, the Court would amend it. In *Cro. Jac. 116. M.* 2 Jac. 1. B. R. in error from a judgment in B. R. the error assigned was the juror was named Constantinus in the return to the venire and in the distringas, but he was returned in the panel and sworn by the name of Constantius; and it was held to be a manifest error, and not amendable.

"All these cases were before the stat. 21 Jac. 1. c. 13. s. 2. And from these it appears that even before that statute, mistakes in the surname of a juryman were generally holden to be amendable, if the return to the venire were right.

"But the statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 13. has put the matter beyond all doubt in respect to surnames. The words are "no judgment shall be stayed or arrested after a verdict because any of the jury who tried the issue is misnamed either in the *surname* or addition in any of the jury process, or in any return thereupon," so as upon examination it appear to be the same person who was meant to be returned." So this statute has settled the point as to surnames, but has left the point as to christian names as it was before. Nor do I know that such mistakes are remedied by any of the subsequent statutes.

"But even as to christian names the cases are various both before and after this statute. In the cases already cited it seems to be held that mistakes in the christian name were not amendable. But in *Codwell's case*, 35 & 36 Eliz. B. R. 5 Co. 42. b. and 43. a., and which is called the case of *Codwell v. Parker*, in *Cro. Car. 208.*, in an appeal of mainhem between *Codwell* and *Parker* verdict for the plaintiff; and moved in arrest of judgment that there was a variance between the return of the venire and the distringas and the postea in the name of a juryman. In the return to the venire he is named *Palus Chcak*, in the distringas and postea *Paulus*, by which name he was sworn; there judgment was arrested, because he was misnamed in the panel to the venire; but it was held that if he had been rightly named on the return to the venire, and wrong in the other process, it should have been amended on examination.

' If in the return to the venire a juror be called Pearse Thomas and so in the habeas corpora, but in the panel annexed to the habeas corpora he is called Peese Thomas, and is sworn by that name, and it appears upon examination that he was the same person that was returned; held to be amendable, though this was upon a writ of error. T. 42 El. B. R. Dairv. Abr. tit. "Amendment," p. 330.

' These cases were before the statute. Since the statute, in the case of Rowe and Bond, v. Devys, M. 15 Car. 2. B. R. in Cro. Car. 563; Sir W. Jon. 448; and Danvers 330; in the return to the venire a juryman was named Samuel, and so in the distringas, but in the panel annexed he was called Daniel, and sworn by that name as appears by the record, and gave a verdict for the plaintiff; though this was not within the stat. 21 Jac. 1., yet it appearing upon the examination of the juror himself that he was the person returned, and that his right name was Samuel, and that there was no other person of that name in the parish, and by the examination of the sheriff and his clerk that it was the misprision of the clerk, who, though he had the distringas before him, wrote Daniel for Samuel in the panel; and the juror likewise swearing that, there being a great noise in the court when he was sworn, he answered supposing himself to be called by his right name of Samuel; the record was ordered to be amended, and the judgment was not stayed; and the Court held, though the statute 21 Jac. 1. extended only to surnames, and did not therefore help the present case, yet that this was amendable by the common law, and by the statute 8 Hen. 6. c. 12. as being only a misprision of the clerk.

' There is indeed a case in Cro. Car. 203., between Downs and Winterflood, M. 6. Car. 2., where this seems to be doubted: but that was in an attain, and no judgment appears to be given. The case was thus; one of the jurors was returned by the name of Alexander Prescot; in the resummons, which is in the nature of a distringas, he was called Alexandrus Prescot, and was sworn by that name; the verdict of the petit jury was affirmed, and this was moved in arrest of judgment: the Court held clearly that this was not aided by the statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 13. But as the cases cited to arrest the judgment were where the mistake was in the return to the venire, and as it appeared there that the return to the first process was right, Alexander being the true name, and it appearing that he was the juror who was intended to be returned and sworn, the Court seemed rather inclined to think that the second process might be amended, but adjourned the consideration thereof.

' These are the most considerable cases that I can find, which seem to bear any resemblance to the present.

' And now I shall come to the consideration of the present case. It was truly said by the counsel for the plaintiff that we ought not to go out of the record (unless in respect to such matters as throw an imputation on the jury and cannot appear on the record itself, concerning which I have been more particular in the case of Norman v. Beamont *, in this term, so I need not repeat what I there said); and

* See the preceding case.

they cited the case of *Arundel v. Arundel*, Cro. Jac. 12; and *Dyer* 163. b. pl. 56. which are full to this purpose.

Now the record here being right, and no variances appearing thereupon, there is no occasion for any amendment, nor can the judgment be reversed on a writ of error, and for the same reason the judgment cannot be arrested: whereas in all the cases cited the variance appeared on the record: and therefore unless the record were amended, the judgment ought to have been arrested, or it would have been reversed on a writ of error. The only question therefore in every one of them was whether the record should be amended.

So all the cases were very different from the present, in which there can be but one question, whether by reason of a matter not appearing on record but laid before the Court by affidavit, we shall set aside the verdict and grant a new trial. And I think it would be very unjust to grant a new trial in the present case, since there is no objection to the verdict itself, since the objection does not appear upon the record, and since it appears by the affidavit which makes out the objection, that the juryman who was sworn on the jury and tried the cause was the person who was summoned and returned and intended to be a juror in the cause, which is the very reason relied on in the statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 13. and in all the cases where amendments have been ordered.

I did not lay much stress upon the answer which was given by the counsel for the plaintiff, that a man might have two christian names, one at his baptism and another at his confirmation; but for the reasons aforesaid I was of opinion that the rule ought to be discharged.

My Brothers Abney and Burnett were both of the same opinion. They thought that Henry and Harry might be taken to be one and the same name. That, as granting new trials was merely in the discretion of the Court, they thought this was such a case that the Court ought not to set aside the verdict, since it was agreed to be a just verdict, and since no variance appeared on the record, and there was not any imputation upon any of the jury.

And Brother Burnett said that the only question in this cause was, whether, when Courts always go as far as they can to support a verdict, we should in this case set aside a verdict contrary to justice and to the reason of all the cases that had been cited. He likewise cited *Arundel's case*, Hob. 64, where *Lisney* in the *habeas corpus* was made *Listney* to agree with the venire, though the true name was *Lisney*, because they sound so like. He also cited some other cases where *Baskervill* and *Baskerfield**, *Stoke* and *Stokes*, *Hastin* and *Hastings*, *Mac Kair* and *Kair*, had been holden to be the same names.

And *per Curiam*, the rule was discharged †.

* Vid. 2 Rol. Rep. 168.

† In *R. v. Roberts*, 2 Str. 1214. on a trial at bar of a traverse to an inquisition of lunacy, the Court ordered (against the defendant's consent) the christian name of one of the jurymen to be altered from *Henry* to *Harry*, on his acknowledging that he was the person summoned.

—N. This case is very different from the case of Norman v. Beamont*, for there a person was sworn upon the jury by mistake who was never summoned or returned, in the room of one who was summoned and returned.

We were particularly gratified by the judgment delivered in the great and well-known case of *Omichund* against *Barker*; in which Lord Chancellor Hardwicke desired the assistance of the Chief Justices of the King's Bench and of the Common Pleas, and of the Chief Baron of the Exchequer. It was there decided, in opposition to the authority of Sir Edward Coke, that the depositions of witnesses professing the Gentoo religion, who had been sworn according to the ceremonies of that religion, taken under a commission out of Chancery, were admissible in evidence. The strong and masculine sense, the sound learning and varied information, and the liberality, of the Chief Justice, appear no where to greater advantage than on this occasion.—The curious nature of the subject discussed, and the splendid abilities of the Counsel who argued and of the Judges who determined the question, entitle it to the utmost attention.

Mr. Durnford has much improved this publication by the addition of pertinent and applicable notes; pointing out in what particulars, prior and subsequent decisions agree with or differ from the cases contained in the volume. We consider the work as possessing great merit, and forming a valuable accession to the library of every professional man; and the editor is entitled to no slight praise for the accurate and perfect form in which he has presented it to the world.

ART. VIII. Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c. selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Vol. IX. 8vo. pp. 348. 6s. 6d. Boards. Dilly. 1799.

TILL "grim-visitaged war has smooth'd his wrinkled front," the pursuits of Agriculture and rural improvement must endure some disadvantages: but to the agitations of the present political struggle, we cannot, with the Secretary to the Bath Society, attribute the alleged falling off in their correspondence. The communications from all quarters to the Board of Agriculture, while they evince the general zeal for internal improvement, must serve to diminish the streams by which provincial establishments were formerly supplied; and it is certain that at no period have agricultural publications been more numerous than

* The preceding case.

they

they are at present. While, therefore, we cannot admit the reason adduced for the materials being less abundant than usual, out of which the present volume is composed, we are happy in seeing a fresh proof of the commendable exertions of this respectable and public spirited society; and in having a farther opportunity of paying our compliments to its judicious Secretary, Mr. Matthews; who, though he calls himself an 'humble writer,' must not be passed without some tribute of praise. Of his Introduction, containing an 'Account of various topics of experiment and observation, which have engaged the attention of the Society, since the publication of the last volume,' we shall repeat what we said of his essay prefixed to the former volume; that it ought to have been printed in a distinct pamphlet, for the sake of being more generally circulated. In this summary, he has selected and compressed with judgment, explained with clearness, and reasoned with diffidence and politeness; though we cannot add that he in every part carries conviction to our minds.—Before we dismiss this Introduction, we shall have occasion to discuss a subject on which we differ considerably from Mr. M. and the Bath Society; and, as it is of public importance, we cheerfully avail ourselves of the opportunity here afforded of enlarging our remarks.

Taking it as an established fact that there is an increase of population in the kingdom, occasioning an increasing call for the necessities of human life, Mr. Matthews invites gentlemen of landed property to consider *'how their possessions may be rendered the most productive of human subsistence, and the most numerous instances of human comfort?'* This general question he afterward branches into the following particular heads of inquiry: 1st, Whether the nearest lands, or those attached to the mansion, be divided to the greatest possible advantage, and applied to their most productive and proper uses? 2dly, Whether the *distant farms* be so divided and apportioned into large and middle-sized, as to be most suitable to the general state or gradation of farms in the district; and especially whether a small pasture or grazing farm may not be advantageously parted off from a large one: so that, by only building a cheap farm-house, little bigger than a cottage, room may be made for another useful farmer; a man who, by close attention to that kind and degree of husbandry which can be managed with a small capital, may turn such portion of ground to an improved account, and be at the same time subservient to the greater interests of the community, in raising an additional number of young pigs, the various kinds of poultry, stocks of bees, &c. Those of our gentry, who sincerely wish well to their

country will attend to this hint; since the price of the necessities of life does not depend merely on the quantity brought to market, but also on the manner in which the market is supplied; whether by only one or two great farmers, or also by several little agriculturists. Great farmers will not be satisfied with the little gains which arise from little things: but, when there is a variety of capital, gain is sought by an attention to all the varieties of produce. The present state of markets calls for what Mr. M. is so solicitous of seeing, a greater number of small farms.—3dly, Whether the larger farms be duly proportioned, and provisions in leases be wisely inserted to keep them so, as to *pasture* and *arable land*? 4thly, Whether any part or parts of such farms be easily susceptible of the advantage of watering, for the improvement of meadows? 5thly, Whether the important article of *wood plantation* has been sufficiently considered on every large farm? and, 6thly, Whether adequate care be taken, in leasing farms, to prefer tenants who are disposed to *neatness* in the general management of lands; to encourage such by particular commendations; and to admonish the slovenly and negligent, when they are found inattentive to their *duty*?

This last query, which glances at the *slovenly farmers*, is naturally followed by the mention of two grievances or supposed grievances, which are said to generate this disreputable class of agriculturists, viz. the conversion of contiguous small farms into a large one, and the immoderate increase of rents. Mr. M.'s remarks on the latter subject should be well weighed by the proprietors of land; who are sometimes tempted, by offers of an over-high rent, to lease their estates to adventurous farmers; and these men, calculating on more gain than the regular system of husbandry can yield, have recourse to immoderate-cropping, and, through dishonesty or want of judgment, often ruin both themselves and the land which they occupy.

Mr. Matthews next adverts to the topics of *Inclosure* and *Tithes*: but these must not now detain us. We shall content ourselves with referring them, and the other subjects discussed in this Introduction, to those to whom they are addressed; persuaded, with this writer, that 'a radical knowledge of the *true principles of general plenty, population, and content*, in the country districts through the nation, will best qualify country gentlemen to act in parliament with success.'

The remainder of this Introduction is occupied by the subject of *Live Stock*; and Mr. M. tells us that the improvement of general skill in this article has been an important object with the Bath Society. He observes that 'it is now become a great rational question, *What race of neat cattle, sheep, and even*

even swine, are to be considered, or by what degrees of admixture they may be made, the most profitable for a general supply of animal food?" He not only states the question, but ably assists in its solution: but here again we must not follow him in detail. We shall only give his account of what is called *kindlyness* in neat cattle. The smaller and finer the head and neck, the finer and clearer the horn, the more lively the eye, the cleaner and more delicate the mouth and nose, the straiter the back, the deeper the body, the smaller the bone below the knee, the thinner and looser the skin, the finer the hair, &c. the greater is the probability of expeditious and profitable fattening.

Towards the conclusion of this essay, Mr. M. notices our remarks on his Introduction to the former volume of Bath Papers; and, in the name of many members of the Society, he protests against an opinion which we gave respecting the reservation, in cases of inclosure, of a wide space for the public roads. This opinion, in consequence of the objections of so respectable a Society, we have attentively re-considered: but we are not induced in any degree to abandon it.

The width of our public roads through old inclosed districts is certainly not sufficiently ample in many places: where the evil cannot be remedied, however, without incurring a very heavy expence, it must be endured: but in new cases of inclosure, it should be carefully prevented. All those who have given any attention to the subject of *roads* know that such parts of them as are narrow, and overshadowed with trees and hedges, require beyond all comparison more repair than those parts which run over commons, and open situations, where the action of the sun and air is uninterrupted. So obvious a fact ought not to be disregarded. Besides, when the doctrine of individual appropriation is about to be rendered operative in the inclosure of what has been common and undivided, sufficient care should always be taken of the public; and too large rather than too small a space should be reserved, over which the highways are to be carried. When avarice has grasped every inch, except what is pronounced necessary for a public road, it will be too late to make the discovery that a greater width ought to have been reserved. We were surprized to find Mr. Matthews asserting that 'the common modern allowance of forty feet should seem to be abundantly sufficient, for all useful purposes.' This notion, we know, has been taken up and maintained by some gentlemen; and our former and present remarks are designed to combat a principle, which posterity will have reason to reprobate, if it be generally adopted in inclosure schemes. A road staked out forty feet wide will lose much of that width after banks are made, hedges planted and grown to maturity,

maturity, and the dirt of the road has been thrown up on the sides. In a few years, perhaps it will not be thirty four feet wide, and even this space will be so shadowed as to be almost constantly wet. If the actual road to be sustained by gravel, or stone, for the passage of carriages, needs not to be more than thirty feet wide, (except near large towns,) we contend that the width from hedge to hedge should at least be double this, if we would diminish the consumption of labour and materials in the sustentation of our public roads, and make travelling on them pleasant. The green ribband or border, which we formerly mentioned, would greatly add to their beauty; and by giving to commissioners a power of preventing all nuisances or encroachments on them, there would always be a free circulation of air to exhale moisture; as also a pleasant horse and summer road. It would be preferable, in our opinion, to leave a green strip of common along the highway side, to be depastured by the poor traveller's ass, or by the higher's little horse, than to allow individuals in their allotments of commons to trench too much on the comfort and accommodation of the public.

We have no interest to serve, nor any spleen to gratify, by these remarks. We offer them from the purest desire of having the beauty as well as the productiveness of the kingdom considered in Inclosure Bills. A few feet or yards of waste land can be no object when the inclosures are marking out. Let the public be generously treated; and let us not be niggards in the article of roads; for we may be assured that the value of inclosures will be increased by a noble amplitude of highway. Let it not be held up as an established doctrine, that forty feet of width from hedge to hedge is *abundantly sufficient*.*

We must now leave this subject, to attend to the Letters and Papers of which the present volume is composed.

The first article exhibits a *Series of Experiments in the Culture of Potatoes*, with Remarks on the same, and on the general Culture of this valuable Root. By the Rev. Alexander Campbell, Minister of Kilcanmonell in Argyleshire.—For the practice of this gentleman in this species of culture, we must refer to the paper itself; which evinces great attention in making experiments. It is here laid down as a principle that 'the productiveness of potatoes is probably not occasioned by the weight or quantity of the sets planted, but by their having that number of round and perfect growths, which the soil they feed in can bring to perfection.'

* Sixty feet is the width mentioned for high roads, and forty for private roads, in the *General Road Act*.

Account of the superior Advantages of drilling Corn. By Mr. John Exter, of Pilton, Devon, rewarded by the Society with ten guineas in plate.—According to these experiments, which appear to have been very fairly made, the new mode of management is preferable to the old. The *advantages of the Drill Husbandry* over the Broad-cast are stated to be 1st, A saving of half the seed corn; 2d, A more regular and certain growth of that seed; 3d, Assisting the growth of the crop by pulverizing the soil and destroying weeds; 4th, Producing a larger and better crop; 5th, Harvested with less expence and with greater certainty; and, 6th, The soil is left in a better state for future crops.

The *disadvantages of drill husbandry* are said to be, 1st, The difficulty of finding a person acquainted with the use of the machine. [Perhaps Mr. E. should have said, the difficulty of making servants, when on the soil, attend properly to the machine.] 2d, The soil must be well prepared to admit it. 3d, The crop is too thinly sown. 4th, Harvested later than broad-cast crops. 5th, Clover succeeds not well with it. 6th, Oats produce rank and coarse straw, not good feed for cattle. To each of these objections, Mr. E. gives what he deems a satisfactory reply; though he afterward seems to admit the validity of the first objection, by confessing that, if he had not at first gone through all the minutiae of the process himself, drilling alone would have been the work of one season.—On the whole, he seems to manifest the advantages of the new husbandry, and his paper should be read by those who are prejudiced against that system.

The first part of the next article, from the Rev. H. J. Close of Hordle near Lyvington, (who appears to have instituted a kind of agricultural school,) is a continuation of the same subject. In the true John-Bull-style, he offers a considerable bett (not less than 1000*l.*) in favour of the drill compared with the Broad-cast husbandry, to be decided by fair experiments. At the same time, however, we must observe that he declares his abhorrence of gaming, and only uses this mode of arguing as one which comes home to the feelings of Englishmen, to express his full persuasion of the superiority of the drilling process; which he calculates, if universally adopted, would be an annual saving to the country, in seed corn alone, of about 8,000,000 bushels of wheat, 3,000,000 bushels of barley, 1,000,000 bushels of rye, 4,000,000 bushels of oats, and 1,000,000 bushels of beans and pease.

The remainder of this paper contains an account of drilled turnips: as also of what is called the *half husbandry*, every other ridge in a field being cropped with wheat, and the intermediate

diate ridges planted with potatoes; and in the following year, changing the crops. The produce was abundant; and, with care, this kind of husbandry may answer.

The succeeding paper comes from the same author, and relates the advantages which he found attached to the cultivation of the *Mazagan Bean*.

Art. 5. is a Letter from Benj. Hobhouse, Esq. M. P. on *rendering Inclosure Bills more simple and less expensive; and to obviate in some degree the want of a General Bill.*—Mr. H. states it as the opinion of many, that Sir John Sinclair's motion for a General Inclosure Act was crushed by the powerful influence of those, for the loss of whose fees no compensation was provided. Assuming this as a fact, and believing the impossibility of obtaining a general law at present, Mr. Hobhouse proposes that a motion be made in Parliament for the reduction of the fees of office, (two-thirds of them, or any other proportion of them, in all cases in which the land to be inclosed shall be under a certain value,) in soliciting and passing Inclosure-bills. He apprehends that an acquiescence in such a measure would not diminish the amount of the fees, because, by such an inducement being held out, there would be more applications to Parliament for leave to inclose. This suggestion proceeds unquestionably from a very patriotic principle: but it is a sort of half-measure to which we cannot be very partial, and to which Mr. Hobhouse's arguments would fail of giving effect.

Farther Reflections on Commutation for Tithes. By Mr. Price. In this well-written essay in support of an opinion formerly given on this subject, Mr. Price judiciously considers the vast increment of the poor's rates as an evidence that the labouring poor are underpaid; and that they obtain from the parish what they ought to receive from the hand of their masters.

On Art. 7. respecting *the Culture of Furze as winter Food for Horses*, by John Harvey Pierce, Esq. we say nothing. The succeeding paper contains an account of the *Turnip Cabbage*, (a more useful vegetable than furze,) with directions for its cultivation; by the Rev. Thomas Broughton.

On the *Cultivation of Potatoes from the Rind*. By the Rev. Edward Whittle.—This gentleman asserts that, in experiments which he made, there was no difference in the produce, whether the rows were planted *with the rind*, with *whole potatoes*, or with *pieces* cut in the usual way. If this be so, it is a waste of seed to plant whole potatoes.

A Series of Experiments respecting Smut in Wheat: in a Letter from James Jennings, Esq. As far as these experiments go, the vitriolic acid diluted with water, in the proportion of one to thirty, proved to be a good mixture for steeping wheat,

in order to prevent the disease well known to farmers by the name of *smut*. If this be thoroughly ascertained, it is an important discovery: but we must not be too credulous. Farther trials are necessary.

The next paper is on sundry Topics, by Mr. John Feltham: a chit-chat letter; and the following is a description (with a plate) of a Draining Plough, by E. L. Loveden, Esq.

Farther Practical Remarks on the Nature of Sheep and Wool, and on the Disorders of Sheep, &c. By Mr. J. Collins, of Devizes.—This communication merits perusal, but does not admit of abridgment. It is the result of attentive observation combined with judgment.

A short Account of the long Earth-Worm, which preys on the Roots of Wheat Plants. By Mr. Francis Furbér.

A Botanical Paper then ensues, which contains an Account of the principal *English Grasses*, with descriptions of their respective excellencies and defects in regard to agricultural uses. By Mr. Sole.—This catalogue, specifying 108 varieties, will be very useful to those who wish to know the different English grasses: of which this judicious botanist assigns to the *Poa Pratensis*, or Great Meadow-Grass, the noblest rank.—Two plates are given with this paper, containing 12 engraved specimens of the most valuable meadow-grasses.

Though we did not expect an essay on a Medical subject among the papers of an agricultural society, we should congratulate ourselves and the public on meeting any where with so much good sense and consolatory information, as Dr. A. Fothergill has here exhibited in treating of: *The Nature of the Disease occasioned by the Bite of a Mad Dog*. This is one of the most terrific and afflicting maladies to which human nature is subject: but inquiries of this nature will serve (we hope) to make it better understood, and may lead to the application of an effectual remedy. Dr. F.'s examination is truly philosophic; and the maxim which he takes as his motto, *Principiis obsta, sero medicina paratur*, should be well considered in the prevention of the malady attendant on the bite of a mad-dog. Many curious facts are contained in this paper, which our limits prevent us from noticing: but the ingenious author has clearly shewn why the boasted medicines hitherto employed have proved ineffectual, and he has suggested a more probable method of prevention and cure. He considers 'Hydrophobia as a species of spasmodic *angina*, produced by a specific contagion, which exerts its influence first on the injured part, and afterward on the organ of deglutition.' The indications of cure he states to be, '1st, to dissolve the fatal connection between the injured part and the organ of deglutition. 2dly, to calm
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the violent spasms, and soothe the nervous system; and, 3dly, to support the strength and invigorate the whole frame.

Dr. F. recommends that the part bitten should be sucked; which method is as safe as it is simple. If the poison be supposed to have taken any effect, he advises (in agreement with most other medical men) that the part affected should be cut out, and the wound canterized, to prevent the irritation being propagated to the throat; applying also a sharp blister to the throat from ear to ear. In the 2d place, he would dissolve, in a pint of olive oil, half an ounce of camphire, and have the whole body diligently rubbed with it before a gentle fire: or he would plunge the patient into an entire bath of warm olive oil, if it could be procured, as a means of exciting a copious perspiration; after this, in the 3d place, he would give the patient the most nutritious aliment.

Description of a Pair of Harrows and a Drag. By Mr. Wynne.
Account of a Furrow Roller and new Drag. By Wm. W. Pinchard, Esq.

Queries on the Subject of Vegetation proposed by the Board of Agriculture, and mostly answered by Mr. Thomas Parsons, a Member of the Bath Society—These queries extend to a variety of particulars, arranged under general heads, and then subdivided; so that we can only refer the inquisitive to the paper itself.

An Account of Inquiries respecting the Subject of Population. By Sir John Call, Bart. M. P.—Ready as we are to admit the fact that our population surpasses the usual estimate, we cannot think with Sir John Call that it is indicated by the increased price of corn. Neither is the fact pointed out by the greater demand for fire-wood; which only shews that the lower people are more luxurious. If bread-corn were to fall in price from 3s. to 1s. per load of forty bushels, would Sir John think that our population was diminished? However the introduction of inoculation, and other causes, may have favoured population, we cannot adduce the dearness of corn as a proof that our numbers are increased. Circumstances necessarily concomitant on a state of war, such as great purchases of corn and fat cattle for the support of large fleets and armies, must tend to raise the price of these commodities in the public market, even while the operations of war are accelerating the waste of human life. It must therefore be extremely fallacious to infer the state of population from the price of provisions.—We do not deny the fact of an increase of numbers, but are rather disposed to believe it; yet we must observe that it is not to be hastily deduced from one or two circumstances, nor from the confined observations of any individual. In a general view of the subject,

ject, some things will be found propitious, others adverse, to population.

Sir John Call supposes that, from the year 1770 to the year 1788, the population of Great Britain increased from 8 to 9 millions; and from 1788 to 1797, to ten millions. He notices the vast quantity of imported grain in late years, and points out the propriety of remedying the evil by increased improvements in agriculture, principally by inclosures and their cultivation. He calculates that 160,000 additional acres must be brought into tillage, in order to make our growth equal our consumption: but, in a state of warfare, there is no accurate reasoning on this subject.

Account of the peculiar Nature, Use, and Value of the Turnip-rooted Cabbage, with the best Mode of its Cultivation, founded on long Experience. By Mr. Lewis Tugwell.—Though, says Mr. T. this plant has been mostly considered as an *off-scouring* article, there is not one in the whole range of plants cultivated for the support of farming stock, which is of equal importance. Surely, then, our *condescension* has not been very great in adopting the culture of it, as a permanent and stable feed for sheep in severe seasons and critical situations. Its eulogy is here sung, and its mode of culture specified: but the paper might have been shorter.

The 22d article contains *The Farmer's, Grazier's, and Butcher's Ready-Reckoner*: a short Table, by which the Weight of Stock, according to the different Usages in England, can be ascertained, and the value of Stock of any Size, with the Difference, at once discovered. By the Right Hon. Lord Somerville.—This useful compendium is printed in a convenient size for the pocket, and may be purchased at the Society's rooms.

In two Letters, from Mr. John Wagstaff, *on useful Modes of Planting, and on Prevention of Smut, &c. &c.* the writer continues to recommend the washing of seed-corn in pure water, as the desideratum of ages for the cure of smut: but we have reason for believing that it will not universally succeed. Mr. W. now suggests that the smut-powder may be waisted by the wind.

Some Observations on the Depredations of Insects on Fruit-Trees. By Mr. John Haskings, a Country Gardener.—An insect is here mentioned which is destructive of the blossoms of apple-trees, and the *tom-tit* is stated to be the enemy of this insect: hence the utility of *tom-tits* in orchards.

On the Value of Ruta Baga (preferred to the Turnip-rooted Cabbage) compared with other Turnips; and a Proposition for instructing young Men in the New Husbandry. By the Rev. H. J. Close.—This gentleman proposes to take 8 pupils

on terms which are specified in an Advertisement prefixed to the volume.

Account of the Premiums and Bounties given by the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of the various Objects of the Institution, from its Commencement to the present Time.—This should have been given as an Appendix.

Articles 27, 28, and 29, relate to the *Potatoe Culture*. In the first, Mr. Sweet states the advantage of planting small potatoes; in the second, Mr. Bartley details experiments of raising potatoes from seed, with observations tending to encourage such experiments (Mr. B. means to give the world a separate publication on this subject); in the third, Mr. Wickins mentions an easy method of manuring potatoes, and farther recommends the feeding them off with hogs, by folding them as sheep are folded on turnips.

Account of a Crop of Cabbage, for which a Premium was awarded. By Dr. Parry, of Bath. The weight of the cabbages per acre was, 32 tons, 17 cwt.

Statement of an experimental Process of Manufacture, to ascertain the Value of English Wool from Sheep of a Spanish Mixture. By Mr. Joyce.—The best cloth made from this wool was found, on inspection by a Committee, to be worth 15s. 6d. per yard; the second sort, 12s.

The last article is *A Report concerning the public Trial of Ploughs*, near Piper's-Inn, in October 1798.

Thus have we particularly noticed the contents of the volume before us; which exhibits a pleasing instance of the attention given to subjects of national importance. If some of the papers be trifling, their inferiority is compensated by the real excellence of others; and we should not do our duty in making our report, without bearing testimony to the general utility of this Institution.

ART. IX. *A Companion and useful Guide to the Beauties of Scotland, to the Lakes of Westmoreland, Cumberland, and Lancashire, and to the Curiosities in the District of Craven, in the West Riding of Yorkshire.* To which is added a more particular Description of Scotland, especially that Part of it called the Highlands. By the Hon. Mrs. Murray, of Kensington. 8vo. pp. 400. 7s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1799.

THE perusal of this work has afforded us considerable pleasure, and we trust that we shall be able to impart to our readers some of the satisfaction which we have experienced. The fair writer needs not plead her sex to entitle her to attention, much less to mercy; and the praise which we bestow on her performance, justly and willingly, must not be considered

dered as indulgence to a weakness which we have been unable to discover ; nor as granted in consequence of her deprecating that censure, which in our opinion she by no means deserves. Her humility, however, enhances her merits.

Mrs. Murray observes, in her preface, that she writes because she thinks that her guide will be really useful to those who may follow her steps through Scotland, and to the lakes of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire, by informing them of such objects as are worthy of notice ; and at the same time acquainting them where, and by what means, they can attain a view of them in the safest and most comfortable manner. This purpose she has fully accomplished, by pointing out the distances from place to place, and by mentioning the inns, whether good or bad ; not omitting the state of the roads, distinguishing such as are fit for a carriage, and those on which it cannot go with safety, &c.—In addition to these circumstances, which form the useful part of the work and constitute the duty of a guide, Mrs. M. enlivens her narrative with animated and picturesque description, and with amusing anecdotes. Her objects are, 1st, to furnish an useful vade-mecum to travellers ; which is done in less than one hundred pages : 2dly, which is the most difficult and the most entertaining part of the volume, to give a minute and just description of those natural Beauties in the Highlands of Scotland, with which, for the following reasons, she conceives herself to be better acquainted than most other individuals :

‘ I was alone; nor did I limit myself as to time. I took great pains to see every thing worth seeing ; and perhaps had better opportunities, than most other travellers, of exploring almost every famous glen, mountain pass, and cataract, by having a great many good and kind friends and relations by marriage, in Perthshire, and other parts of the Highlands ; whose hospitality and kindness are stampd upon my heart, and will not be forgotten by my pen, when I describe the country.’

We shall dismiss the first part of the work, with observing that the directions given in it are judicious ; and that many of the remarks are, to our knowledge (for we are not unacquainted with the country through which the author passed,) just and well-founded.—No one who has travelled can doubt the propriety of the advice conveyed in the following passage :

‘ If you mean to travel for pleasure, and are willing to be safe, make a resolution, (and keep to it strictly) *never* to be out after dark. If you will adhere to my plan, and be early in a morning in your chaise, you may see each day’s portion of beauty, and have daylight to lodge you safe, in your intended quarters, unless some unforeseen delay should occur.’

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From Longtown, where the descriptive part of the work commences, Mrs. Murray continues her journey to Langholm, through part of Eskdale, Ewisdale, and Piviotdale, to a beautiful part of Tweed-dale, which she represents in the most glowing colours. The pleasure which she derives from viewing the pure charms of nature is so great, and is expressed in such warm and natural terms, that it is impossible not to partake, in the perusal, of the satisfaction which she enjoyed in her route.

‘I had been wonderfully pleased with Eskdale, Ewisdale, and Piviotdale; but I cannot describe my sensations of delight, when I came in sight of that part of Tweed-dale, around Yair, and Fairnalie. The road, after it quits the banks of Ettrick, takes a quick turn, and winds round the bases of hills; when on a sudden, it comes close on the Tweed; and within sight of a simple bridge, and scenery more enchanting than can be described. As soon as I crossed the bridge, Yair was to my left, on the other side of the river; and Fairnalie, on my right; I knew not which to admire most; the river; its banks; the hills; the rocks; or the wood, (which is here in abundance.) All are beautiful. The fancy, in Arcadia, cannot paint a more soft, more sweet, or more lovely scene, than that part of Tweed-dale. It is pastoral beauty completely perfect. Not an object that can hurt the eye, or ruffle the mind. The soul, for four miles, must be lost to every other sensation but that of soft delight, heightened by an elevation of sentiment, which nothing but such enchanting scenes as those on the Tweed can produce.

‘When the chaise turned from the sweet flowing Tweed to mount the steep hill, by a rapidly tumbling water’s side, I felt as if I were leaving Paradise. Had not my whole senses been engrossed by the scene below, I might have been somewhat alarmed at the road I was ascending; which is cut in the mountain’s side; high, and hanging over the rough Caddon water, rolling to the left, down a rocky narrow bed, which it has formed, between two mountains. The road itself, however, is very good, though it be narrow; and the ascent from Tweed-dale very sharp, and frightful, for a timorous traveller to pass:—but as for lovers of nature, in the sublime and beautiful, *they* can have neither eyes to see their danger, nor *any* sensation, but that of regret at quitting a scene so enchanting.

‘Two miles after I had turned my back upon this pastoral Paradise, the road came down upon the banks of the Galla water, joining the road to Galla Shiels: and I then entered Edinburghshire. The scenery on the banks of the Galla, as far as Bank House, is very pretty, but not to be compared with the lovely Tweed. The Galla water falls into the Tweed somewhat below the town of Galla Shiels.’

‘We readily believe Mrs. Murray, when she declares that the simple beauty of Nature is her hobby-horse; and we also assent to her inference, when she triumphantly asks, ‘where can a Hobby-horse of that breed find greater scope than in Scotland, particularly in the Highlands?’—An account of fine
houses

* houses or *dressed* places is not to be expected in this volume; the author having been in pursuit of far different objects. For this reason, she did not attempt to enter the Duke of Buccleugh's house at Dalkeith, in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, but contented herself with seeing the pleasure grounds, park, &c.—We much approve the Lady's taste.

The description of the scenery about Loch Catheim is truly interesting; and the difficulties and dangers which the fair traveller encountered, in order to obtain a favourable view, astonish us, for they were more than sufficient to impede a less determined traveller than Mrs. Murray. We transcribe the account of Leadnock, in the hope that our readers will derive from it as much pleasure as we did:

‘ But of all the spots, for its size, none can compare to the sweet Eden, of Leadnock.

‘ The old Scotch ballad, of Bessy Bell and Mary Gray, gives the history of two affectionate faithful friends; how

“ They bigg’d a bower on yon burn brae,
And theek’d it o’er with rushes,” &c.

And it is the burn that moans through the thickets at Leadnock, by which these friends chose to big their bower, and there to retire to avoid the plague. Their lover followed them; but they did not escape the fatal disease, for all three fell victims to its rage.

‘ About thirty years since, the small estate of Leadnock was purchased by an officer, who found it in the rudest state of nature. Like our first parent, he pruned and planted; and with his faithful Eve, morning and evening, saw that it was good; and for it rejoiced, and were thankful to Him who gives and takes away. Every thing flourished under the fostering hands of this worthy pair.

‘ The woods, the walks, the verdant banks, the blooming rose, and twining woodbine, all proclaimed their taste and industry; not a spot in their Paradise but what was noticed and named emblematically. The house and garden, situated on a small plain, are embowered with trees of my friend's planting. In front of the house is a lawn, of an unequal semicircle, at the edge of which is an almost perpendicular rough rocky bank, where below rolls the Almond river, more picturesque than can be described, over a wide rocky bed, dashing through its winding way, darkened by high projecting rocks on both sides of it, with wood sprouting from every cliff, and feathering to the roaring stream. On the Leadnock side, down the rocks, and on every side, are fine trees of every description; particularly those on the left (in appearance impenetrable) towards the old Brig of Almond. To the right is a winding walk to the edge of the rocks hanging over the river; and at the top of a very steep path a stone seat is placed, on which is cut, “rest, and be thankful.”

‘ The owner and creator of Leadnock was in Lord Ancram's regiment, the 24th, when in the year 1746 that regiment made the road through Glen Coe, in Argyleshire; and put up the stone on the

top of the high hill between Glen Coe and Glen Kinglass, called Rest and be thankful. At the bottom of the steep path I came to the most beautiful meadow that fancy can form, with a numerous flock of sheep feeding on its lovely green pasture. The Almond, with high rocky banks on one side of it, and flat to this lovely meadow on the other, sweeps round the better half of it; and on the other parts of this pastoral lawn, rising from it, are the thick woods of Leadnock, and the high banks of Logie Almond, covered with impenetrable underwood, and backed by noble timber trees; with the burn of the fair friends, marking the division of property, meandering in its course down the brae over pieces of rock, and through tufted branches, stumps of trees, and bushes, to join the Almond below. In this Arcadian meadow, under the hanging wood of Leadnock, I came to a bit of ground, walled in, and on a stone in the wall I read this simple inscription, "The tomb of Bessy Bell and Mary Gray." I plainly saw the marks of two graves, by the rising of the sod: the third, that of the lover, said to be at their feet, I could not find. These walks were raised, and within and without planted with all sorts of odoriferous shrubs and flowers, by the Officer above mentioned, who discovered the graves, unveiled the natural beauties of Leadnock, and brought them to perfection. The present owner of that sweet place, Mr. Graham of Balgowan, has greatly improved the farming part of it: but that where taste and sentiment prevailed is fast decaying, and sadly wants the parent's prop, who made it what it was, and far beyond comparison with what it is now. It is a pity Mr. Graham does not quit Balgowan, upon the boggy Pow, and gladden the Eden of Leadnock with the chief residence of an hospitable benevolent lord.

'The carriage road to Leadnock from Logie Almond is a great way about; and the walks through the woods that were once made and kept open for the convenience of the families of Leadnock and Logie, are now entirely obliterated and choked by thick woods, briers, springs, and every obstacle that rude nature has combined to destroy them. I was determined, however, to see that admired place. I set out alone, and contrived to lose my way; and into the bargain, got my flesh and my clothing tattered and torn; but I was resolved to accomplish my purpose, I therefore pierced thick woods, climbed stone walls, clambered over ploughed clods, knee deep, waded the burn, and at last succeeded. I was hospitably regaled with some nice mutton and potatoes at Leadnock house; a very acceptable refreshment after my laborious, lonely, blundering walk. The good man and his wife belonging to Mr. Graham, attentively shewed me all that could be seen, and then set me in the right road to Logie.'

As long continued descriptions, however accurate and just, or however bold, masterly, and picturesque, tend to fatigue the mind, Mrs. Murray not unfrequently introduces delineations of character, and sometimes diversifies her narrative with agreeable anecdotes. The following sketch of the manners of the people of Inverness will justify our observation:

'I have

‘ I have already mentioned the *present* amiable manners of the people of Inverness, and the adjacent country ; and I must also add, that they are now perfectly secure in their property, as well as polished in their behaviour (which is not always the case in the south), retaining the honest simplicity and hospitality of the patriarchal age, which the rub of refinement has not impaired. Indeed, not only in Inverness, but in most parts of the Highlands, the manners of the people are pleasant to a great degree ; and the poorest of the poor will vie with each other which can most assist, or gratify a stranger, provided it be not on a Sunday. On that day, if a carriage breaks down in the Highlands, there it must lie, for no hand will be found to mend it ; not for want of good will, but for conscience’ sake. In the Lowlands, in and about large towns, particularly where there are manufactories, or in sea-ports, there are as many depraved folks as in England : but in the Highlands all is safety and security ;—no fear of thieves by night or day. All the doors and windows are left unfastened : and I have even seen sideboards, covered with plate of very great value, stand in open parlours night and day, without fear of its being touched.

‘ One instance, however, will shew what they *were* in Inverness-shire, in former times, and what I found them, and have described them to be *now*.

‘ One of the M’Donalds of old, probably from Lochaber, coming down to visit Culloden, near Inverness, observed how numerous, and how very fine his cattle were. Culloden lamented, that in all probability he should not have sufficient pasture for them during the winter. M’Donald eyed the cattle, and told his friend he could accommodate him in that matter, if he wished it ; he having fine pasture in abundance. The bargain was made for so much a head, for a stated time ; and M’Donald promised to take the utmost care of the beasts, if Culloden would have them driven up to his lands ; which was accordingly done. In about two months a man from M’Donald came down with a long face, saying, “ his chief was in great trouble and dismay, at Culloden’s cattle having been all stolen, and driven away.” Culloden, who perfectly well understood the meaning of all this, without expressing either anger or concern, ordered his chief man to take great care of ~~this~~ messenger, and ply him well with meat and drink. After a day or two, the man signified he must return. Culloden, before he departed, called him before him, and without saying a syllable of the cattle, asked him if he had been treated to his heart’s content ; gave him money, and dismissed him. The man went up to M’Donald, and said to him dryly, “ the man *must* have his cattle back again.” This peremptory speech astonished the Highland thief, who remonstrated ; but the man insisted, and swore if he did not comply, he would blaze abroad his roguery, and oblige him to it by force. M’Donald knew his man, and the consequences if he continued obstinate. He therefore quietly submitted ; and in a short time sent the same man to Culloden to acquaint him, that he was very happy in having overtaken, and rescued his cattle from the thieves who had driven them away.’

We must now take leave of this agreeable tourist, with thanks for the entertainment afforded us by her singular and valuable performance. Her descriptions appear to us to be generally accurate and just; though we think that she rather over-rates the difficulties and dangers which it was necessary to encounter, before a perfect view of the country could be obtained.

ART. X. *The History, civil and ecclesiastical, and Survey of the Antiquities of Winchester.* By the Rev. John Milner, M.A. F.S.A. 4to. 2 Volumes.—Vol. I. *being the Historical Part.* IL 11s. 6d. Boards. Robson, &c. 1799.

THE city of Winchester has various claims on public notice. To the professed Antiquary, and to the general Historian, it presents a variety of subjects of curious investigation and interesting detail; and though it has now lost much of its former importance, it still exhibits traces of antient magnificence, which will naturally lead the sagacious and diligent inquirer into an examination of its original establishment, and of the numerous institutions, civil and religious, by which it has been distinguished. Perhaps, indeed, no other place affords so many inducements to a comprehensive research, and is so immediately connected with the rise and progress of civilization, literature, government, and religion, in the kingdom. It is no wonder, therefore, that a writer, possessing the talents and disposition of Mr. Milner, should direct his attention to this object; and take occasion, from the survey of it, to extend his views to those events in the British history, which the recital of its origin and various revolutions must almost unavoidably suggest to an enlarged and contemplative mind.

In the perusal of this publication, we have derived much pleasure from the local and general information which it affords us. While it brings to our recollection many important incidents pertaining to the history of our country in its earliest periods, it furnishes an instructive lesson of the vicissitudes to which the most magnificent establishments of human art and labour are exposed, in a succession of ages. This grave reflection will obtrude itself on every thoughtful reader, on turning over these pages; in which the author has distinctly marked the several æras of the advancement and prosperity, and of the subsequent decline and decay, of the antient and once highly celebrated city of Winchester.

Instructed and impressed as we have been by many parts of this performance, and disposed as we are to acknowledge that the author is entitled to respectful notice for the extent of his erudition

dition and investigation, we are sorry to be under the necessity not only of restricting our commendation, but of expressing the extreme dissatisfaction and disgust with which we have perused several pages of the work. We might possibly have excused the writer's professed veneration for legendary tales; the authority of which, just criticism and historical fidelity should have not only questioned but utterly exploded:—we might perhaps have thrown a veil over those testimonies of respect, which he has liberally rendered to characters of doubtful sanctity;—and justice, as well as candour, might have led us to devise an apology for those reflections, which indicate a predilection in favour of the system of religion to which he is attached;—if we had not, at the same time, observed a deliberate design and a laboured effort to vindicate the avowed patrons of this obnoxious system from deserved reproach, and to degrade the most distinguished advocates of that reformation from popery, to which our country is principally indebted for the civil and religious liberty by which it has been blessed.

How far this work may be considered, under the disguise of a history and survey of the Antiquities of Winchester, as an apology for popery, we may venture to submit to the decision of all impartial readers: but we shall enable them to determine how we have formed our judgment, by some extracts which will occur in the sequel of this article. While we avow ourselves the advocates of free discussion, we must suggest that there seems to be, at the present period, at least an indelicacy in every open or disguised attempt to depreciate and undermine those principles of Protestantism, which lie at the foundation of our freedom and security. While our country has laudably extended its protection to the suffering Romish clergy; and while several rigid laws against English Catholics have been repealed, and a degree of toleration to which they were justly entitled has been extended to them; it does not seem very grateful, nor very decent, in any of those who find, for themselves or their friends, an asylum among us, to aim at alienating the judgment or affection of British subjects, from that system of religion which the British government is pledged to preserve inviolate.

After these preliminary remarks, we shall proceed to give a particular account of the contents of the work before us.

In tracing the foundation of Winchester, the author rejects with just contempt the idle stories of those who imagine that it was first built by Hudibras, 892 years before the birth of Christ, or 139 years before the foundation of Rome; and that its walls were erected by Mulmutius, who was the sole monarch of this island, and contemporary with Darius of Persia. He contents

himself with ascribing its origin to those Celtic emigrants, who, embarking at the nearest port of Armorica in Gaul, landed on the British coast, and made their chief settlement on this spot; which was so well adapted to their subsistence, their defence, and the exercise of their religious rites, and which they called *Caer-Gwent*, or the *White City*; by which name Winchester has been recognized by the most antient as well as by modern writers, who have left any account of the state of Britain. After having described the manners and customs, civil and religious, of these first settlers, the author proceeds to mention the revolution which the city underwent in consequence of the arrival of the Belgic Britons; who were in several respects more refined than the original inhabitants, and from whom it was denominated *Venta Belgarum*. During the occupancy of the Belgæ, this city, which was the capital of their territory, was considerably aggrandized; and after this people had submitted to Claudius, the Roman General, about the year of Christ 44, their capital was fortified by order of Ostorius Scapula in the year 50; at which time it was constructed in a square form, like that of the Roman camps in general, and encompassed by walls, composed of flints and durable mortar, of which traces still remain; as well as of the Roman camp on Catherine hill, in its vicinity.

Under the powerful protection of the Romans, this city made rapid progress in a variety of improvements, and enjoyed for several years the blessings of peace and civilization. The conversion of this part of Britain to the Christian faith is ascribed by Mr. Milner to the zeal of Lucius; who succeeded his father in the year 124; and who is said to have been the first Christian king in this or any other country, and the peculiar benefactor of Venta. Lucius built the cathedral from the ground (says Mr. M.) on a scale of grandeur and magnificence which has never been equalled, and bestowed on it the right of sanctuary, with other privileges. He also annexed to it a monastery, or community of clergy, together with other buildings for their accommodation. These buildings, however, were totally destroyed during the persecution of Dioclesian in the year 303 or 304, and most of the ecclesiastics were slaughtered. The rage of this persecution was restrained in 305 by Constantius Chlorus; and, in consequence of the edict of Constantine in 312, the inhabitants of Venta rebuilt their cathedral, and other habitations for the officiating clergy, but in a much humbler style than that of the original edifice by Lucius. The church and adjoining mansions were dedicated in honour of St. Amphibalus, the martyr; who was either an imaginary saint, or so denominated from the garment or surplice

plice worn by ecclesiastics, called *Amphibalum*.—After the retreat of the Romans, and the arrival of the Saxons in 449, *Venta*, (which had risen to the dignity of metropolis of the island,) London, Lincoln, and York, were seized by the conquerors; who proceeded ‘to fill them with sacrileges and cruelties, destroying churches, profaning relics of the martyrs, burning the holy scriptures, and murdering the clergy upon their altars.’ The ruin of this city was completed by *Cerdic*, the Saxon General, in 516; its magnificent cathedral was made subservient to the gloomy and impure rites of the Saxon idols, *Thor*, *Woden*, *Frea*, and *Tuisco*; and its arts, splendour, commerce, and manufactures, were annihilated. Its name was also changed from *Caer-Gwent*, and *Venta Belgarum*, into *Wintanceaster*, or *Winchester*; which expresses its former importance as a Roman station. *Winchester*, however, under all its disadvantages, was the chief city of the most powerful king in the island. Accordingly, *Cerdic*, ‘having resolved in the most public and solemn manner to declare himself monarch of the western kingdom, assembled the chief of his subjects together in this city, and there caused himself to be crowned, in the new temple of *Thor*, late the cathedral church, with the usual ceremonies of his nation. This important transaction took place in the year 519, from which year all our ancient historians date the beginning of the West Saxon kingdom; a kingdom which, even at its first beginning, was paramount to the other Saxon states, and which, in the end, was destined to swallow up the whole heptarchy.’

In connection with the history of *Winchester*, we might naturally expect to find an account of a character so distinguished as that of king *Arthur*. Mr. Milner, though in other instances sufficiently credulous, refutes many fabulous relations concerning the achievements of this British prince; and he observes that the chief cause of the confusion, which has occurred in the records of his exploits, has been the substitution of *Caer-Gwent* or *Winchester* for the *Caer-Gwent* of *Monmouthshire*; and the *Caer Sciонт* on the borders of *Hampshire*, for that near *Caernarvon* in *North Wales*. We should far exceed our limits, if we were to transcribe what the author has written on this subject; and it is not very easy to decide on a question that has puzzled and divided antiquaries and historians so much as the history of *Arthur*. Neither must we pursue Mr. M.’s detail of the succession of Saxon kings, whose court and seat of government were chiefly held at *Winchester*. He does not give a very flattering account of its splendour and prosperity during this period. It was populous and warlike, but without virtue and science: its inhabitants were unacquainted

with the use of letters; its laws and constitution were precarious and undefined; its princes were capricious and tyrannical; and its religion, suited to the disposition and manners of the people, was austere and gloomy. In the 7th century, however, a brighter scene appears. St. Birinus, a zealous priest, obtained a commission from Pope Honorius, to announce the gospel in those parts of the island into which it had not yet penetrated; and this ardent saint, having qualified himself for his mission by learning the Saxon tongue, is said to have been empowered to accomplish the important object of it by a signal miracle: of which Mr. M. gives the following account:

‘Proceeding from Genoa through France, our apostle came to the sea-port in the channel, from which he was to embark for our island. Here, having performed the sacred mysteries, he left behind him what is called a corporal, containing the blessed sacrament, which he did not recollect until the vessel, in which he sailed, was some way out at sea. It was in vain to argue the case with the pagan sailors who steered the ship, and it was impossible for him to leave his treasure behind him. In this extremity, supported by a strong faith, he stepped out of the ship upon the waters, which became firm under his feet; in short, he walked, in this manner, to land, and having secured what he was anxious about, returned on board the vessel in the same manner, which, in the mean time, had remained stationary in the place where he left it. The ship’s crew were of the nation to which he was sent, who, being struck with the miracle which they had witnessed, lent a docile ear to his instructions. Thus our apostle began the conversion of the West Saxons, before he landed upon their territory. This prodigy is so well attested by the most judicious historians, that those who have had the greatest interest to deny it, have not dared openly to do so.’

To this miraculous relation, Mr. Milner subjoins a note; in which he observes that

‘If there be any faith in history, and unless an absolute scepticism takes place, it must be admitted that miracles were frequently wrought, not only at the conversion of our ancestors, but also during the time that they continued in their primitive fervour and strength of faith.’

For our own part, we cannot help remarking on this account, that the author’s confidence is not inferior to his credulity; and that, without much better evidence than the testimony of the monkish writers cited by him, (though supported by the authority of St. Gregory himself, to which he appeals,) we must withhold our assent, at the risk of incurring, in the judgment of Mr. M. the odium of scepticism and infidelity: nor can we forbear to express our surprise, that such relations as these should obtain credit with a person of a well-informed mind at the close of the 18th century.—Such, however, was the influence of this miracle

miracle with Kingils the king, who was converted, together with many others of every rank and condition, that he soon afterwards began to collect materials for building a cathedral, worthy of so great a prelate as St. Birinus, and of Winchester his royal city; and it was also his intention to have settled a prodigious tract of land round the city, as a foundation for the see: but his death in 643 prevented the execution of his purpose; which, after some delay, was completed by his son and successor in the most magnificent manner with which that age was acquainted. Suitable offices were also erected for the monks, or regular canons; and the first establishment was endowed with all the lands which his father had left for that purpose, and to which the son added three other manors.

We cannot fail (says the author, p. 113) to have remarked the influence of Christianity upon the manners and condition of our rude ancestors. They had now learnt that there are pleasures far better adapted to the heart of man than sensuality and revenge: hence they began to lay a restraint upon their passions, which raised them above that brutal state in which they had hitherto lived, and caused them to observe the moderation of just defence, amidst the very calamities of war, with their enemies. We no longer meet with wars of extermination; and instead of selling their own children to foreigners, they ceased to hold in servitude even their prisoners of war. Hitherto plunder and robbery, both public and private, had constituted their chief occupation and their glory; but now we meet with innumerable instances of their resigning their lawful property, either to assist their fellow creatures, or to cut off from themselves the sources of avarice and worldly solicitude. The same cause, which improved their moral character, served also to elevate their minds, and to bestow upon them all the benefits of civilized life. The gospel introduced the use of letters, and letters introduced every kind of knowledge, classical and scientific. The sons of those men, who knew nothing beyond steering the piratical *cuyle* (or galley), or wielding the murderous *seare* (the crooked sword), now became the oracles of sacred and profane literature. Such were our Daniel and Aldhelm, in the south of the island: such were a Wilfrid and a Bede, in the northern parts of it. To the same cause we are indebted for our laws and constitution: without a Birinus and a Swithun, we should never have known an Alfred. Finally, the same missionaries who taught our ancestors the worship of the true God, equally instructed them to build stone edifices, supported on arches and pillars, to glaze and to lead their buildings; likewise to carve and to paint, to sing and to perform on musical instruments. It is true, these arts were first introduced for the decorum and splendour of religion, but they soon became subservient to the ordinary purposes of life. Thus, in a word, did our city, which under a Cerdic and a Ceaulin, was no more than a mean group of gloomy huts, under a Kenewalk and an Ina, began once more to shine forth as a civilized city of the first rank.

In the 7th and 8th chapters, we have the history of Winchester blended with a considerable part of the history of England, from the establishment of the heptarchy under Egbert, to the Norman conquest. It will suffice to say that, during this period, Winchester, though subject to some reverses inseparable from the dreadful devastations to which this country was at that time exposed, not only retained its former dignity and pre-eminence, but acquired increasing wealth and prosperity; and its splendor suffered no diminution by the Norman conquest. During the civil wars, which were carried on with great violence between Stephen and Matilda, Winchester took part with the former. The calamities which the city suffered, in this cruel contest, have been well described by a late elegant historian (Lord Lyttelton); and they were of such a nature, that it did not soon, if ever, regain its former eminence. It was repaired by Henry II. and received from him many tokens of royal favour. From him it obtained some valuable charters, by one of which its chief magistrate was raised to a rank above all other municipal officers in the kingdom: it being ordained that Winchester should be governed by a mayor with a subordinate bailiff; and this was an honourable privilege, which London did not acquire till the 10th year of King John. Under this reign, Mr. M. reprobates the constitutions of Clarendon, of which Judge Blackstone (*Comm.* vol. 4. p. 422. 8vo.) observes, that they checked the power of the pope and his clergy, and greatly narrowed the total exemption which they claimed from the secular jurisdiction.—Mr. M. closes his vindication of the conduct of Abp. Becket, who died a martyr to the unwarrantable pretensions and usurpations of the church, with an eulogium on his character and cause, and on the manner in which he submitted to the unjustifiable violence of his assassins.

Winchester contended for precedency with London at the coronation of Richard I.; and though the latter succeeded, the new monarch presented the former city with an ample charter, confirming and enlarging its antient privileges.—This city was afterward the scene of John's disgraceful vassalage to the pope.—It was highly favoured by Henry III. who was a native of this place: but, upon the death of this prince, it declined in commerce and importance. The most fatal stroke to its prosperity, however, was the ordinance of Edward III. in 1363, to remove the English staple to his newly-acquired town of Calais; which indicated a desire of turning the clothing trade into its antient Flemish channels.

Winchester had frequently risen from sieges and fires with fresh vigour and splendour; she had as often recruited her population, after destructive pestilences; but this sudden drying up of her trade and commerce,

commerce, after the extraordinary exertions she had lately made to increase them, she was never afterwards able to repair, and henceforward her decline from wealth and consequence was sensible and uniform. Still, however, Winchester continued to be the second bishopric, in point of dignity, and the first, in point of opulence, in the kingdom; as likewise the talents, transactions, and merits of its pastors, by their charities, public works, and regular large establishment in this city, made some compensation for the absence of the royal court, and the decay of our commerce.

Mr. Milner introduces in this reign a particular account of the beneficent acts and distinguished character of William of Wykeham: but, as the life of this very respectable prelate has been written by the learned Dr. Lowth, late Bishop of London, it is needless for us to cite any extract relating to him from this publication.—Under the reign of Richard II. the writer takes occasion to throw out some invidious reflections on the character of Wickliff. Mr. M.'s attachment to popery, and his enmity to the reformation, cannot be more notoriously manifested than by his eagerness to embrace every opportunity of vilifying the characters of those who contributed to this event. Wickliff was not likely to escape. To the influence of the sentiments inculcated by this illustrious reformer, Mr. M. unjustly ascribes 'those democratic insurrections under Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and the seditious priest, John Ball, which, being grounded on the system of Wickliff, threatened the total overthrow of all civil government, and the dissolution of society.'—He endeavours to support this general charge by the authority of the non-juror, Dr. Collier, to whom he very frequently appeals; and by citing some exceptionable tenets, which Wickliff or his followers had adopted.

To Henry VI. the college, cathedral, and other institutions of Winchester, both literary and ecclesiastical, afforded sources of satisfaction; and he frequently resorted thither in order to make himself acquainted with the economy, discipline, and plan of study established by Wykeham in this place, with a view to the institution which he was forming at Eton, near his palace of Windsor. Henry VII. confirmed an antient privilege of this city, viz. that of keeping the standard weights and measures for the whole kingdom; and he presented it with a new set of them, of superior workmanship and materials, which are still preserved in the Guildhall of the city. The author has given engravings of some of these, viz. the bushel, gallon, and yard. He has also introduced a very just eulogium on the learning and virtues of Fox, who was bishop of this diocese in the reign of Henry VII.

Mr. Milner next proceeds to animadvert, with just severity, on the character of Henry VIII. We have no inclination to

frame an apology for the views and conduct of this capricious and cruel monarch; though, perhaps, we may differ with the author as to the ultimate result of the measures which his pride and passion led him to adopt. The suppression of the monasteries was unquestionably an act of injustice and violence: but we have not such ideas of their importance and utility as the author entertains; nor do we repose so much confidence as Mr. M. places in the testimony and judgment of Collier, his favourite authority on this and many other occasions.—In this reign, Winchester was plundered without mercy. Many of its religious establishments were abolished; and those who depended on them for subsistence were consigned to distress and beggary. The college, however, was preserved; and we trust that it will long remain an honourable seminary of literature and virtue.—Of these measures, the author's sentiments may be discovered in the following paragraph:

P. 333. • We are informed, that “ the seizure of the estates of the lesser abbeys was not generally acceptable to the people. They found hospitality decay, the farmer's rents were raised, and the poor increased upon the country.” These complaints of course became much louder at the suppression of the greater abbeys. These, as they had it more in their power, so they were generally more beneficial to the public. By their doles and alms they entirely provided for the poor, insomuch that no poor laws existed until soon after their dissolution. The monks let their farms at easy rents, and made allowances for unfavourable seasons, so that abundance and population increased around them. They received into their houses and entertained strangers of all conditions, according to their rank, gratis; they provided hospitals for the indigent sick, and seminaries for poor children. Their magnificent churches were the schools of the arts, both liberal and mechanical, and their scriptoria and libraries were the only asylum of the sciences and of classical literature. But all these advantages were at present lost to the community, and so many monuments of ancient piety were now annihilated, to gratify the passions of one sensual king, and to raise the families of a few wicked courtiers. The fatal effects of this change were no where more sensible than at Winchester. It had fallen from all its wealth and grandeur, as a royal and commercial city; but the number and splendour of its religious foundations chiefly kept up whatever consequence, trade, and exterior appearance it still possessed. But these being dissolved, and the edifices themselves soon after pulled down or falling to decay, it must soon have worn the appearance of a city sacked by a hostile army. In a word, it is chiefly since the reign of Henry VIII. that Winchester may be said to be no more than the skeleton of its former state.’

We wish that Mr. M.'s zeal had not led him to palliate, though he pretends not to vindicate, the persecutions of the protestants in Queen Mary's reign; and that he had drawn a
parallel

parallel more conformable to historical facts, between the severities of her government and those of Queen Elizabeth; though we have no very high opinion of the moral and political conduct of the latter illustrious princess. In his account of Mary, Mr. Milner writes; 'however unpopular the reign of this queen has proved with the nation in general, yet certainly it served to raise the drooping head of our city; and had it continued longer, would probably have restored it to some degree of its antient consequence and splendour.'—After having minutely described the several circumstances that attended the marriage of Philip and Mary, which was celebrated at Winchester, the author adds, 'we may well imagine that old Winchester lifted up her head on this joyful occasion. Certain it is that her charters were renewed, and it is likely that some part of the immense treasures brought over by Philip, which were much more to the taste of the English than the splendid titles he had conferred on their queen, circulated in this city, to the benefit of its inhabitants.'

Of the author's laboured vindication of this reign, we extract the following specimen: (p. 355.)

'As those sanguinary persecutions, for which this reign was unfortunately too famous, reached Winchester, it is necessary to say something concerning them; and since the matter has been misrepresented by the common herd of writers, for keeping up a spirit of unchristian resentment and counter-persecution in that communion which is now triumphant, we shall enlarge upon the subject farther than would be proper, were a less benevolent object in view. First, then, it is to be observed, that if Mary was a persecutor, it was not in virtue of any tenet of her religion that she became so. At her coming to the crown, and for almost two years afterwards, whilst she declared herself openly in favour of the antient religion, she as openly disclaimed every degree of force or violence against those who professed and practised any of the later systems.'—'Secondly, if, after an interval of near two years' toleration, the queen engaged the parliament to revive the antient acts against the Lollards, it cannot be denied that she had many provocations, from which she too hastily inferred, that the existence of the protestant religion was incompatible with the security of her government.'—'Thirdly, if Gardiner, Bonner, and certain other catholics taught and practised religious persecution in their days, they were not singular in this particular: the most eminent protestant divines openly inculcated the same intolerant lessons.'—'Lastly, the huge history of these persecutions, written by John Fox, which has been the storehouse for all succeeding writers on the same subject, has been demonstrated to be one tissue of falsehood, misrepresentation, or absurdity.'

This defence,—which sets out with the assertion that persecution does not spring from any tenet of popery, which is contradicted by the decrees of councils, the bulls of popes, the establishment

establishment of tribunals, and particularly of the inquisition, and the avowed intolerance of many of its ablest advocates, — needs no comment.

Of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the author observes that, whatever may be said of it in other respects, it was certainly prejudicial to the interests of Winchester; inasmuch as its wealth and consequence were then inseparably connected with those of the national church.

In balancing the accounts between the persecutions of Mary and Elizabeth, Mr. M. states, without any authority, 'that the whole number of those who were put to death in different parts of the kingdom, for the profession of the catholic religion, in Elizabeth's reign, was about 200, without mentioning the great numbers who died in prison, who were stripped of all their fortune, banished, &c.'—and then, like a true advocate of the cause to which he is attached, he proceeds to obviate the pretexts by which these persecutions have been justified. We hope, however, that no person will presume to justify any species of religious persecution; and the pleas, to which Mr. Milner refers, can have been adduced only to palliate what no consideration can justify. He has not stated the number of persons who suffered for religion under Mary; and therefore, in order to exhibit the parallel fairly to the view of the reader, we shall cursorily mention the following particulars. Mary's persecution began within one year and seven months after the commencement of her reign; and in a period of about three years, her reign extending to five years and a half, Mr. Hume informs us, (*Hist.* vol. 4. p. 448. 8vo.), that 277 persons suffered by fire, besides those punished by imprisonment, fines, and confiscations. Many of these were men eminent for their learning and reputation. Now Mr. M. states the number of those who were put to death in the reign of Elizabeth, a period of forty-four years, to be 200: but Camden reduced this number to 62; and he says that, during the first eleven years of her reign, there was not one papist called in question on account of conscience or religion. We leave the reader to his own reflection on this parallel.

Mr. M. closes his account of Elizabeth with this observation: — 'the unrivalled success of Queen Elizabeth in all her projects, and particularly in cutting off all those who were obnoxious to her, was probably the very circumstance that embittered the last scene of her life, which a faithful historian of the church of England (Collier) assures us, was dark and disconsolate, very unlike that of her unsuccessful rival the Queen of Scots, though it took place, by Elizabeth's command, on a scaffold.'

The

The author's predilection for the Stuarts is strongly marked, and evidences of it occur so frequently, that it cannot escape animadversion. The gun-powder plot, as it is called, he ascribes to Cecil; who is supposed to have concerted it, in order effectually to root out of this nation the remains of its antient faith. What he says of Charles II. and James II. deserves notice: (p. 437.)

'Both the royal brothers were attached to the faith that had been originally preached in this country. Charles, from political motives, had dissembled his religious sentiments, until a mortal sickness obliged him to declare them. James acted a more honourable and conscientious part. He avowed his faith, but at the same time declared his abhorrence of every kind of constraint upon the consciences of others, and his fixed resolution of supporting the establishment protected by the laws, but still so as to afford complete toleration to other communions. His conduct was throughout conformable to this declaration. In 1685 the edict of Nantz, which tolerated protestants in France, being revoked, great numbers of that persuasion flying to this city and neighbourhood, amongst other places on the southern coast, James afforded them every kind of protection and favour that it was in his power to shew, contributing out of his own purse to their relief, setting on foot a general subscription for the same purpose, and causing them to be naturalized free of expence.'—

'The king expected to find the same spirit of liberality and toleration in his subjects which he himself was possessed of; but the event proved, that in prosecuting his favourite scheme of uniting an established church with universal religious liberty, he built too much on his civil prerogative, too much on his ecclesiastical supremacy, as the legal head of the church of England, and too much on the avowed doctrine of that church, concerning passive obedience and non-resistance. But, in all these points, he was deceived by the judges, the divines, and the ministers whom he employed. In short, he endeavoured to enforce his famous declaration of liberty of conscience, and he lost the crown for himself and for the house of Stuart, by the attempt. To fall in such a cause was worthy of a king.'

This, indeed, is a very strong declaration. If James lost his crown unjustly, what is the inference with regard to his successors?—Mr. M. seems to forget that James's declaration of indulgence was a defiance of existing laws.

We cannot close this article, though already too much extended, without noticing the author's reflection on the excellent Bishop Hoadly*. (P. 445.)

'The only bishop, who was raised to the see of Winchester by George II. was the famous Dr. Benjamin Hoadly, the great champion of what is called the *Low Church*. This party gives up all pretensions to divine jurisdiction, the power of the keys, the necessity of

* A Letter from Dr. Hoadly Ashe to Mr. Milner, on this subject, will be found noticed in the *Catalogue* part of this month's *Review*.

ministerial succession, the authority of the convocation, together with the certainty of the 39 articles, and every other tenet which the established bishops of the last century had considered as essential to the idea of a church. It is plain the administration, then in place, favoured this system, which, disarmed the church, and made it a mere tool of the state, by the successive preferments which its great hero met with, namely, the sees of Bangor, Hereford, Salisbury, and lastly, that of Winchester, upon the death of Dr. Willis; as also by its taking advantage of his concessions to dissolve the convocation, which has never been allowed by Government to proceed to any business since his time.

On the principles and character of this illustrious prelate, and on the meritorious services which he rendered to the protestant succession, and to the establishment of the present family on the throne, it is altogether needless to enlarge. A slight acquaintance with the history of the period, to which we refer, will furnish an ample vindication of Bishop Hoadly; whose name and memory will be ever dear to the friends of the British constitution, and to the cause of civil and religious liberty.

The author concludes this work with a brief recital of the civil, social, and natural advantages, that distinguish the antient city of Winchester.—The passages which we have selected, and to which many more might have been added, manifest prejudices in favour of his own religious tenets, as well as a degree of credulity, which seem to us to have misled his judgment on many occasions; and to have depreciated, with respect to authenticity and impartiality, the value of a work which abounds with historical research, and which is therefore instructive and useful.

✍ In our next Review, we shall give an account of “*Reflections on the Principles and Institutions of Popery, &c.* by John Sturges, LL.D. occasioned by the Rev. John Milner’s *History of Winchester* :” to which, Mr. Milner has recently published a reply.

ART. XI. *Anecdotes of George Frederick Handel, and of John Christopher Smith.* With select Pieces of Music, composed by J. C. Smith, never before published. 4to. pp. 64, and 34 Plates of Music. 12s. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

WE were glad to see this work advertized; because every circumstance concerning the great musician, who has so long contributed to the delight of the lovers of his art, and whose productions and memory are still highly venerated, must be interesting to his votaries. We were also pleased to see the

name of the worthy Mr. Smith, the scholar of Handel, and successor to him in conducting the oratorios, joined with that of his great master. The editor, however, apologizes for the appearance of the publication, because 'the Life of Handel has been already given in numerous productions:' but he adds that 'the motives which gave rise to the attempt must plead his excuse; the profits of the publication being appropriated to the use of the relations of Mr. Smith, whose memoirs are now first presented to the world.'

The *Memoirs of the Life of Handel*, published in 1760*, (the year after his death,) were well-written, though with few and inaccurate materials for the early part of the great composer's life.—Sir John Hawkins had nothing new to relate;—and in the present anecdotes, we find nothing characteristic. Handel was, perhaps, more original in his humour and conversation than in his compositions, with all their merit. He scarcely ever spoke without wit, humour, or broken English, which created a laugh in the hearers.—In the life prefixed to Dr. Burney's account of the commemoration of Handel†, which he modestly called a *sketch*, he seemed to have taken great pains to procure from Germany original and genuine information concerning the great musician's early life, previously to his arrival in England; and afterward, besides the history of his genius in the critical remarks on his most sublime works, Dr. Burney gave, in his History of Music, and Diary of the Commemoration, such traits of Handel's humour and character, as furnish a portrait of a distinct individual of no common cast.

The new anecdotes in this recent life of Handel are few; and they are such as, in early youth, less genius might have produced. Of the merit of his *compositions*, the best eulogium is the long duration of their fame, and almost every lover of music in England knows them by rote: but characteristic anecdotes, particularly of his juvenile days, we hoped to have found in this work, from records and narrations of Mr. Smith; whose father came hither with the great musician, and continued to live with him nearly till the time of his death, and therefore must have known more of his private life than any other person.—If, however, the editor's motive for writing did not arise from the new materials which he had to lay before the public, benevolence, a more laudable incentive, has conducted him to the press.

Anecdotes of John Christian Smith.

The late worthy Mr. Smith of Bath, born in 1712, was the son of John Christ. Schmidt, the copyist, steward, and faithful

* See M. Rev. vol. xxii. p. 471. *et seq.*

† See Rev. vol. lxxii. p. 279.

cashier of Handel, from the time of his arrival in England till within a few years of his death. The infancy, adolescence, and youth of J. C. Smith, the subject of these anecdotes, offer nothing that is singular, or of sufficient importance to interest the public at large. We are indeed told that he had some lessons in practical music from Handel; an advantage which few young professors could boast: but the instructions which he received from Dr. Pepusch, and from Roseingrave, were obtained in common with many musical students of the time*. Having travelled on the Continent with a person of fortune, he became acquainted, at Geneva, with some English gentlemen of learning and talents; which circumstance seems to have given a turn to his manners and conduct during the rest of his life. Among these were Mr. Benjamin Stillingfleet; Mr. Price, of Foxley, Herefordshire; Mr. Windham, of Felbrig, Norfolk, (now Secretary at War); Mr. Tate, of Mitcham, &c.—with whom the acquaintance mellowed into a friendship which lasted during their several lives.

After the period of his return to England, Mr. Smith mixed very little with his professional brethren, though he continued to compose music and to teach the harpsichord, till the year 1760; when, being in possession not only of the *scores* of Handel's oratorios, but of the single vocal and instrumental parts which had been transcribed for and used by his numerous bands, Mr. Smith undertook to continue the performance of oratorios in Lent, during eight years, on his own account; and during nine more, jointly with Stanley.

We have heard from the first contemporary authority, that there was a shyness between Handel and the younger Smith for several years, which kept them asunder till the great musician lost his sight: but the difference was occasioned by no dignified cause of quarrel. When Mr. Smith, about the year 1739, published a book of harpsichord-lessons, in quarto, Handel took it amiss that his scholar, the son of his copyist, should presume to have a title-page to his lessons engraved exactly in the same form and text-hand with his own first-book of *Pieces de Clavecin*, the best of all his productions.—Mr.

* In the note on Dr. Pepusch, p. 41. the editor tells us that, 'at the latter end of his life, he devoted himself to the study of Grecian music, and endeavoured to illustrate the doctrine of Isaac Vossius, concerning the *rhythm* of the ancients.' The subject of this paper, by Dr. Pepusch, printed in the *Phil. Trans.* vol. xlv. is here very inaccurately stated. The word *rhythm* never occurs in the whole memoir; the title of which is, "Of the various *Genera* and *Species* of Music among the *Ancients*, with some Observations concerning their *Scale*."

Smith's pieces were then perhaps inferior only to those of his model. They consisted, as was then the general fashion, of preludes, fugues, allemandes, corants, and jigs.—If, previously to his blindness, Handel was indisposed during the performance of oratorios, he often called on Kelway for assistance in the organ; whose performance he honoured so far as frequently to go to St. Martin's church, to listen to his voluntaries under the organ-loft.

We find a note at p. 43. of this pamphlet, on the mention of Harry Carey, which we cannot pass over: We are sorry to see in this note an unqualified assertion repeated, that Carey was the author of the words and music of the now national song or hymn of *God save Great George our King*; a story which we have so fully refuted in our Review for July 1799, p. 356. As all the magazines and news-papers of the times tell us that Carey died in 1743, the song could not have been written or set to music by him for the rebellion of 1745! nor on any antecedent occasion, since it does not appear in any of Carey's numerous publications of songs with and without music; and had it been his, it could not have remained concealed during so many years. The composer of the words and melody was utterly unknown at the time of the rebellion, when it was in such favour, and so much inquiry was made after the author. We mean not, by denying poor Carey this honour, to depreciate his talents; which were original both in the words and music of a great number of beautiful ballads, serious and comic: but his claim to the air in question is so ill-founded, that nothing but the infirmity of Mr. Smith's memory, at his great age, and when on the brink of the grave, can account for his abetting it.

Mr. Smith was certainly an elegant musician, and in his conduct and manners far above the general level of the professors of his art: but we are not certain that his execution as a practitioner was great, nor that his invention as a composer was original. Of his musical productions which accompany these anecdotes, we have however been informed, by better judges than ourselves, who are partial to Handel's school, that the duet from his oratorio of *David's lamentation over Saul and Jonathan* has great merit in the expression of the words, and ingenuity in the accompaniments; without which it would resemble *Steffani's* learned style of chamber duet: but, with the accompaniments, it might well pass for Handel's composition, from the contrivance of the instrumental parts, its adherence to the subject, and the harmony of the whole. This duet seems perfectly qualified for admission at the Concert of

Antient Music, where the style of Handel is so well understood both by performers and hearers.—For the rest of these compositions, they were pleasing common-place at the time, but a perspicuous critic would lay his finger on every passage which had been drawn from Handel's source.

We plainly see that Mr. Smith's style of composition was that of the day, without an attempt at deviation; a style which Handel had rendered *à-la-mode*, and to which not only Mr. Smith, but all the English composers, strictly adhered during more than 40 years; as is manifest in the works of Green, Boyce, Arne, (in his oratorios,) Worgan, and Stanley. Arne, in his dramatic music, adopted easy and elegant passages from Italian operas: but we must except his *Comus*, in which there is much original melody, as well as in his Vaux-hall ballads. Mr. Smith never was a popular composer. His oratorios, though new, and in support of which he had the patronage of several illustrious friends, and great families, (particularly that of Barrington,) were not heard and attended so well as those of Handel, which had been in constant use for many years. The English opera of *The Fairies*, in which Guadagni and Frasi performed the principal parts, had a considerable run: but it was never revived; nor did the airs penetrate into Vaux-hall, Ranelagh, Marybone, private concerts, or private families, like those of Arne's *Comus*, or Boyce's *Chaplet*, after having been heard at the theatres.

On the whole, it appears to us that there are more negligences in these anecdotes of Smith, in respect to style, than in those of Handel. Indeed the materials are less interesting, and the hero is of very inferior importance; which may have allowed us, as readers, more leisure to attend to polish and embellishment of style. In that part of the book which concerns Handel, we were surprized to find the editor talking of '*making* extempore poetry';—'*composing* extempore music'; and the anecdotes of Smith are sometimes deformed by cant phrases and vulgarisms, though manifestly written by a person who is accustomed to the press.

A well engraved portrait of Handel is prefixed to the anecdotes of him; and one of Smith appears before the part of the work which is appropriated to the delineation of his character.

ART. XII. *Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt*, undertaken by order of the Old Government of France. By C. S. Sonnini, Member of several scientific and literary Societies; and formerly an Officer and Engineer in the French Navy. Illustrated by Engravings, consisting of Portraits, Views, Plans, Antiquities, Plants, Animals, &c. drawn on the Spot, under the Author's Inspection. To which is subjoined a Map of the Country. Translated from the French. 4to. pp. 730. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Debrett. 1800.

IN the Appendix to our 29th volume, N.S. p. 577, and in vol. 30, p. 121 and 297, we took ample notice of the French edition of this curious and interesting work, and of Dr. Hunter's *quickly-executed* translation. We are here presented with a more expensive and splendid version, executed more at leisure and with greater attention, and embellished with plates more beautifully engraved *. This majestic quarto must be allowed to be superior to the Doctor's humble octavos, and might safely have been suffered to speak for itself: but the anonymous translator, piqued at being preceded in the market by the Doctor's rapid pen, gratifies his angry feelings by descending to the most minute and irritating criticisms. Without making any allowances for the circumstances of the case; without giving the Doctor credit for the most moderate portion of science; and by setting down every error of haste and inadvertence to the score of absolute ignorance; he has exhibited Dr. Hunter as an object of pity and derision, and as one who ought not to have undertaken such a work. He is termed the '*seraphic* translator,' and the '*sapient* divine,' &c.; and the present translator carries his ridicule so far as to 'recommend the perusal of a certain passage of Dr. H.'s version as an admirable remedy for a pain in the bowels;' for which, he says, 'I am persuaded, it will prove as infallible a specific as a draught of sour small beer.' It is impossible to approve this conduct, and it would be a dereliction of duty to pass it without censure. Though it must be owned that, both in the Preface and in the Appendix, (entitled † *Hilaria Hunteriana*,) many of the Doctor's literary "*sins, negligencies, and ignorances*" are detected, yet the present translator is not at all times fair and accurate in his statements. For instance; in p. 9 of the Preface he says,

'In THEOLOGY, it undoubtedly never could be expected that a *layman* should cope with a *Doctor of Divinity*, or pretend to illustrate

* The last plate containing a view of *Abou-mandour* is added by the translator; and is a fine engraving.

† In these *Hilaria*, we do not find many things to make us merry. Most of the errors and blunders are the evident effect of haste.

the scriptures by the travels of a French republican ; but the world is certainly much indebted to the reverend translator for a new exposition of the celebrated axiom of our Saviour, which has much puzzled commentators and alarmed the rich : " It is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle, than for a rich man to enter the kingdom of God." Dr. Hunter seems, by his learned note, to be of opinion, that by the eye of a needle is meant the wicket of a convent in the desert of St. Macarius.'

If we turn, however, to the short note in vol. 2. p. 155, we shall find that Dr. H. says nothing about the eye of a needle being *like a wicket*, &c. but only remarks that " perhaps this passage may serve to elucidate a simile employed by our Saviour." Had the angry critic known or recollected that some have asserted that there was near Jerusalem a low gate called the *Needle's eye*, impassable by camels without the greatest difficulty, and which is supposed to have given occasion to the saying, Dr. Hunter's note would not have been treated with so much contempt.

The present translator thus states the case between himself and his rival, in Preface, p. 1.

' Having long been informed that Sonnini intended to publish his *Travels in Egypt*, I was induced, from my taste for natural history, and a knowledge of his talents as a naturalist, to engage in the difficult task of giving them to the public in an English dress. Accordingly, through the medium of the daily papers, I announced my intention as far back as the 4th of last June ; and the moment I obtained a copy of the work, I put the plates into the hands of some of the most eminent engravers, and was proceeding in the prosecution of my design with all imaginable ardour, when, on the 20th of August, a translation of the same work was published, under the name of HENRY HUNTER, D. D. Notwithstanding the forward state of my plates, and the considerable progress made in printing my manuscript, I was more than once inclined to suppress the whole, conceiving that one good translation of a foreign work was quite sufficient. But upon a perusal of Dr. Hunter's production, I discovered, that it abounded with so many *lively* images, so many brilliant sallies of wit, such a multiplicity of flashes of merriment ; in short, that the ingenious translator had so greatly improved upon his original, and indulged so much in beautiful paraphrases, that I could not help considering he had carried his pleasantry rather too far, and that this exuberance of fancy might not suit the taste of every class of readers. For these reasons, I judged that a *serious* translation of Sonnini's *Travels* might not, perhaps, be altogether unacceptable.'

We are glad that this gentleman was not diverted from his purpose ; and it may be presumed that he will not go unrewarded for presenting to the public so handsome an edition of this work. Egypt is likely, for some time to come, to excite the

the inquiries of the literati of Europe; and though the French have been completely baffled in their schemes relative to that country, we shall probably, through their means, acquire more correct information respecting its government, natural history, antiquities, &c. than has hitherto been exhibited. From Bonaparte's expedition, we may learn many particulars of the state of Egypt: but little, we apprehend, will have been effected by it towards meliorating the condition of the natives, or restoring their antient learning and splendor. *The first People in the Universe*, as the French are styled by French vanity, may have discovered monuments to which all approach has hitherto been prohibited either by a suspicious government or by a wretched and barbarous people: but now they must have lost all ideas of raising cities from their ashes, of digging and repairing canals, of uniting the Red Sea with the Mediterranean, and of restoring the commerce of the East to its antient channel. A philanthropist would rejoice in having the wretched state of the inhabitants of Egypt amended: but, even from M. Sonnini's own account of the dangers of navigation near the Egyptian coast*, to say nothing of the difficult navigation of the Red Sea, we may question whether any benefit would have accrued to Europe, had the French succeeded in the Egyptian expedition; and whether the trade to the East is not carried on with more safety, dispatch, and economy, round the Cape of Good Hope, than it could possibly be up the Red Sea and through Egypt. While navigation was in its infancy, and commerce floated in small vessels, Alexandria may have been a good situation for an Emporium between Europe and the East Indies: but, since the ocean has been perfectly explored, and we can navigate immense castles to and from with little risk, the circuitous is preferable in many respects to the direct course; and the French, had they been able to have retained possession of Egypt, would probably have been disappointed in their expectation of seeing Alexandria regain its antient consequence †.

As there is every prospect of our being frequently called to travel in our great chairs to the land of Egypt, we cannot deem it advisable to re-discuss the narrative of M. Sonnini: but, since some specimen of this new version may be expected, we will indulge our readers with an extract:

* Having spent upwards of five months in travelling over Upper Egypt, that is to say, over an extent in latitude of about a hundred and eighty leagues, watered by the Nile above Cairo, and terminating at the cataracts or at the tropic, and having frequently resided in

* The port of Alexandria he calls infamous and detestable.

† All circumstances must be alike to produce the like effect.

the principal parts of that country, I have been enabled to obtain sufficient knowledge of it to express my opinion on the expedition of the French. There are so many people who speak on this subject, without being acquainted either with the nature of the soil or climate of Egypt, or with the manners of its inhabitants; there are so many encomiasts, as insipid as they are ignorant; so many perfidious detractors; that, perhaps, some degree of interest will be excited by the candid and free language of an observer, jealous of the glory and power of his country, to whom the adulation of the slave, and the gloomy ill-humour of the cynic, are equally unknown, and who cannot be denied the privilege, if not of being attended to or consulted, at least of speaking with some advantage upon a subject of which he has taken no small pains to acquire the best information.

‘ It has been seen in the course of this work, that I considered the project of replacing our distant, and, perhaps, insecure colonies by another colony, the proximity of which to the mother-country, the almost miraculous fecundity of its soil, the facility of its culture, its singular situation, which makes it the emporium of the commerce of the richest nations, its vicinity to countries the most fruitful in valuable productions; lastly, the ease and dispatch with which communications might be maintained between France and Egypt, render that colony of far higher importance; all these considerations induced me to regard this project as a happy conception, a sublime idea, and its execution as one of those rare acts which render nations illustrious, and which bear the internal and striking stamp of immortality.

‘ In fact, the possession of Egypt would ensure to an industrious and enlightened nation the commerce of the Levant and of Barbary, as well as that of the opulent country of Yemen. The Indian seas carrying their waters through a long gulf into its sands, afford the greatest facility to navigation and commerce, the sources of inappreciable wealth, especially when the canal of communication between the Nile and the Arabian Gulf, one of the most considerable and most useful works of the ancient kings of Egypt, shall have been discovered and again perfectionated. The river itself, then better known in its course, will be disencumbered from the obstacles which now obstruct its navigation, and will, in security, and at a moderate expense, convey the gold and other productions which nature has placed under the scorching climate of the interior of Africa; while the sun-burnt Moor, the indefatigable broker of these fiery regions, will forsake the route of the coasts of Africa, and conduct his caravans into Egypt, as soon as he is certain of there finding safety and protection, as well as an abundance of the articles which constitute his returns. Connections founded upon trade and interest, but unfettered by all ambition of religious conquest, the pious mania of injudicious missionaries, and which has excluded the Europeans from an interesting and immense country, will be established with the Abyssinians, whose territories are watered by the same river. With new nations, new riches will be brought to light; and in gradually and successively extending these communications, a knowledge will be acquired of a part of the globe, into the bosom of which neither the heroes of antiquity,

tiquity, nor the boldest adventurers of modern times, have hitherto been able to penetrate.

‘ In speaking of discoveries, I have indicated the only kind of conquest which philosophy sanctions, and which occasions neither the spilling of blood nor the shedding of tears ; that which alone affords a pure and real enjoyment, and which an enlightened people places in the highest rank. Egypt will likewise become the seat of the arts and sciences ; and the riches resulting from this source will have a wider and more generous destination, since their diffusion will extend to every nation in the world.

‘ Agriculture will assume a new aspect ; and, being better understood, will add the treasures of plenty to an accumulation of wealth already so considerable. I have enumerated the principal productions of Egypt ; I have mentioned those, the culture of which might be attempted with success, and which, when concentrated, will eclipse the most valuable commodities our most wealthy colony affords. The limits of fertility will be enlarged, at least, as far as the chains of mountains which seem to mark its boundaries on both sides of the Nile ; and perhaps industry, guided by science, will even discover the means of establishing vegetation upon the sandy and desert plains, which, behind these mountains, stretch to the east and to the west.

‘ But what would not fail to happen in favourable circumstances, is retarded by those which have attended the French expedition to Egypt. War, it is universally admitted, is the most unpropitious period for the establishment of colonies. Like a consuming conflagration, it burns, it destroys every thing that it approaches ; commerce, agriculture, all the sources of public prosperity, are dried up or annihilated ; the bright flame of the torch with which the genius of the arts and sciences strives to enlighten mankind, grows dim at the aspect of public calamities, and is at length extinguished by the tears which misfortune every where causes to flow. The destructive breath of ambitious passions stifles the voice of philosophy ; every kind of good vanishes, while every kind of evil accumulates. Instead of fostering waters, the earth is inundated with blood, producing a fertility at which nature revolts. Ravage succeeds to culture, and scarcity takes the place of abundance. All sorts of misery occupy the ensanguined stage of the theatre which infuriate war erects ; and the man of sensibility, his soul overwhelmed with grief, and his heart worn out with agony, indignantly beholds the atrocious beings who, in the course of an ambitious career, cruelly sport with the happiness and the lives of mankind. The ferociousness of such men has no counterpart in nature ; tigers even do not gorge themselves with the blood of tigers *.

‘ Without peace, no real happiness can exist ; without peace, no society can prosper. If these incontestable truths be applied to the expedition to Egypt, it will be easy to perceive that the new colony, desolated by the double scourge of intestine commotions and external

* ——— *parcit*
Cognatis maculis similis ferra. JUVENAL.’

war,

war, cannot acquire a flourishing condition. The various tribes by whom it is inhabited, and whom it would, perhaps, have been better policy to dispose for a revolution, than to attack in the field, animated by an inordinate fanaticism, founded upon the grossest ignorance, and excited, besides, by the enemies of France and of general tranquillity, will abandon the cultivation of the soil, or destroy the crops it may have produced. The fields are overrun by warriors, and covered with all the implements used in battle; lands, which a succession of ages had seen decorated with the richest harvests, are astonished at being shaded by encampments. The labours which the art of war requires cannot be executed but to the detriment of that of agriculture. Several spots on the surface of the earth thus change both their aspect and nature; and it will easily be conceived how prejudicial these partial injuries are in a country where fertility was, in a manner, merely factitious, and where it cannot subsist without the succours which the people of ancient Egypt multiplied with so much ingenuity and skill.

The devastation which the wants of a large army produce, and military operations, in general, are so many wounds inflicted on agriculture. The trees, which are so valuable in Egypt, where every sort of wood is very scarce, will fall beneath the axe of necessity or of malevolence; plantations, of many years standing, which afforded a necessary shelter against the heat of the climate, will be destroyed; and ever-verdant groves, loaded with agreeable and cooling fruits, will share a similar fate. So that at the moment when peace shall be restored, the ravages of war and of barbarism should be repaired, before any amelioration is attempted; an immense task, but not beyond the courage and activity of the French.*

It hence appears that the sanguine expectations from the Egyptian expedition, conceived at the commencement of the work, were considerably abated before the author drew to a conclusion. Events gradually dissipated the illusion, and supposed advantages were more than counterbalanced by real evils. The Ophthalmia * of Egypt is alone sufficient to deter Europeans from settling there; and we question whether there be an individual in the French army, who wish to repeat the experiment of an invasion of Egypt.

After every allowance is made to Dr. Hunter on the score of the *currens calamus*, it must be granted that the present translator appears to be more intimately acquainted with the French language; and that, as a Natural Historian, he is manifestly superior: but these claims to pre-eminence should have been silently manifested; or, if pressed on the public by the invidious mode of comparison, they should have been urged in a manner which would have been less disagreeable to the reader, and more creditable to the writer.

* We understand that there are above a thousand men among the remains of the French army in Egypt, who have lost their sight.

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For APRIL, 1800.

ARTS, &c.

Art. 13. *The Repertory of Arts and Manufactures*, consisting of original Communications, Specifications of Patent Inventions, and Selections of useful practical Papers from the Transactions of the Philosophical Societies of all Nations; &c. &c. 8vo. Vol. VII. —XI. 9s. 6d. each. Boards. Nichols, &c. 1799.

Our readers will learn, from this brief notice, that this very useful and curious *Repertory* has progressively advanced to its eleventh volume. For what we have already observed, in explanation of the nature and design of the undertaking, we may refer to the 22d vol. of our New Series, p. 460, and to vol. xxv. p. 118.

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 14. *An Essay on the Education of Young Ladies*. Addressed to a Person of Distinction. 8vo. 2s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

As a letter from one friend to another on the subject of the education of daughters, this essay may have obtained credit: but, though it shews that the author is a man of some reflection, it is not of sufficient importance to secure the public notice.—A school education is here recommended for young ladies, in preference to a domestic one; and the study of the Latin language is advised instead of the French. For the former opinion, as far as it respects the daughters of our nobility and gentry, there appears to be more reason than for the latter. A lady, if she does not travel herself, may be supposed to be thrown into the company of those who have travelled, and of foreigners; and it is of more importance that she should be acquainted with the general language of foreign courts, than with a dead language. French is now what Latin was formerly.

Had not this writer confined his remarks to the Education of *Young Ladies*, we should have been inclined to express a doubt of the wisdom of recommending a school in preference to a home education; provided that by a *school* he means a *boarding-school*; where the daughter is entirely taken from the superintendence of the mother, and is generally introduced to ideas and habits foreign to those of her family and rank in life. We are disposed to think that the daughters of tradesmen, and of persons in the middle classes of life, should enjoy the advantages of a school education without being cut off from their homes. There would not be so many unhappy females, had they not been educated above their sphere. The credit of day-schools for females is not sufficiently supported. For the sake of accomplishments, we endanger their virtue. Hopes of pleasure, shew, and ambition, are excited by the present mode of female education, which cannot be generally gratified; and many, who are thus unfitted for the duties of their proper station, sacrifice their innocence at the shrine of vanity.

Art.

- Art. 15. *Some Hints to young Women engaged in rearing Infants, or educating Children either in private Families or Schools.* 12mo. 2s. Half bound. Newbery. 1799.

This little volume consists chiefly of quotations from different authors on the subject of education. The selection appears to be executed with judgment; and, like every other work which tends to make mankind think on this important subject, it is entitled to a share of praise and attention.

- Art. 16. *Of Education founded upon Principles.* Part I. By Thomas Northmore. 12mo. pp. 86. 2s. Boards. Reynolds. 1800.

Mr. Northmore is an advocate for private education; and he seems, from this work, to be uncommonly attached to antient maxims and examples, and to the modern writers on this subject, Rousseau and Godwin.

- Art. 17. *The Spoiled Child; or, Indulgence counteracted.* By Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Half bound. Vernor and Hood.

Mrs. Pilkington might have called her publication, 'the spoiled child' *reformed, or recovered and rescued.* We should wish to believe that the early removal of parents can seldom (if ever) prove a benefit to their children: yet so it happened to Mrs. P.'s Sir Charles Fitzowen. Born amid affluence, indulged, pampered, soothed, and encouraged in all his humours and follies, he was in the high road to become an intolerable burthen to others, and to bring complete destruction on himself: when the death of his nearest relatives threw him into wiser and better hands, whose firm yet gentle conduct awakened his own powers of thought, and instead of a vicious, insulting tyrant, or debauched and selfish rake, produced an useful and honourable character.

The short narrative is intermixed with incidents and tales, which engage the attention of the reader; though the style of some of them may possibly be rather too high.

- Art. 18. *James Manners, Little John, and their Dog Bluff.* By Elizabeth Helme, jun. 12mo. pp. 137. Darton and Harvey. 1799.

An instructive and amusing little volume. We find a happy contrast of two youths, foster-brothers, James in a higher station, John in one very inferior; and faithful Bluff forms no unimportant part of the *trio*. Except in affluence, John has greatly the advantage of his friend, if he might venture so to call Sir James: honest, diligent, contented, manly, humane, and affectionate, he represents what many in lower stations have formerly been, what some still are, and what more might be, notwithstanding the uncommon disadvantages of the present time. His conversation with the trusty *Bluff*, and his reproofs for supposed misbehaviour, are natural and interesting. John, whose gratitude and attachment are invariable, proved of the utmost service to his once wealthy friend, whose caprice and extravagance immersed him in distress and poverty. Happily for him, there was some foundation of natural good sense, so that affliction brought him to perceive and to acknowledge his errors. By the advice and assistance

ance afforded by John, and John's plain but respectable father, he attained in a humble station that comfort and satisfaction which he had never known, when wealth and luxury surrounded him on every side. In a course of time, the arrival of an uncle from the East Indies, united with other circumstances, re-instated him in those possessions of which by vice and bad companions he had been deprived. He now appears a man of true honour, benevolence, and virtue.—'Blessed is the man, (says the uncle,) who never strayed from the path of rectitude; but no less favoured is he, who is stopped in the career of vice, and led back to virtue.'

I R E L A N D.

Art. 19. *Observations on Dr. Duigenan's "Fair Representation of the present Political State of Ireland;"* particularly, with respect to his Strictures on a Pamphlet entitled "The Case of Ireland Reconsidered." By Patrick Lattin, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1800.

In our Review for March-1799, p. 337, we gave an account of "The Case of Ireland Reconsidered;" a performance which we perused with much satisfaction, on account of the spirit and temper with which it had been written:—its object was the defence of the author's brethren of the Roman Catholics of Ireland, against the prejudices and misrepresentations by which they had been calumniated, respecting both their religious and political principles. Dr. Duigenan, however, not deeming so favourably of that performance, severely animadverted on it in his "Fair Representation of the present political State of Ireland;" which was mentioned in M. Rev. vol. xxx. p. 336. In that performance, Dr. D. not only bore very hard on the whole body of Irish Roman Catholics in general, but in particular on the writer of "The Case;" to whom, it now appears, the Doctor is obliged for the "*Retort Courteous*" at present before us; who has taken satisfaction of Dr. D. in his own way; and in whom, truly, we think the Doctor has met with an opponent of no mean consideration. Mr. L. is certainly a man of respectable literary qualifications, and in his courage and prowess, the Roman Catholic cause, particularly with regard to the state of Ireland, has met with a very competent advocate.

With respect to some *personalities* which fell from the sharply pointed pen of Dr. D. and of which Mr. L. had, we suppose, just reason to complain, we understand that he has had recourse to the interference of the law; and that he has obtained a verdict against the Doctor's bookseller, with considerable damages.—It cannot be expected, however, that *we* should approve this method of settling literary disputes;—it takes the business out of *our* hands.

Art. 20. *The Speech of the Right Hon. John, Earl of Clare, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland,* in the House of Lords of Ireland, on a Motion made by him, Feb. 10, 1800, "That in order to promote and secure the essential Interests of Great Britain and Ireland, and to consolidate the Strength, Power, and Resources of the British Empire, it will be advisable to concur in such Measures as may best

best tend to unite the two Kingdoms, in such Manner, and in such Terms and Conditions, as may be established by Acts of the respective Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland." 8vo. pp. 101. Dublin printed, *by Authority*; London reprinted by Wright, Piccadilly.

As the subject of this learned oration is now brought to what, among medical men, is termed "a perfect crisis," our readers will not desire that we should enter into particulars respecting the speech now before us: but the following passage, taken from the concluding paragraph, will serve to shew the ardour with which the noble orator has laboured in favour of the proposed union:

'It is with cordial sincerity, and a full conviction that it' [the proposed measure,] 'will give to this my native country, lasting peace and security for her religion, her laws, her liberty, and her property, and increase of strength, riches, and trade, and the final extinction of national jealousy and animosity, that I now propose to this grave assembly for their adoption an entire and perfect union of the kingdom of Ireland with Great Britain. If I live to see it completed, to my latest hour I shall feel an honourable pride in reflecting on the little share which I may have in contributing to effect it.'

Art. 21. *Practical Observations on the proposed Treaty of Union between the Legislatures of Great Britain and Ireland, &c.* By John Gray, LL. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Becket, &c. 1800.

This is a sensible and useful pamphlet; not filled with vague declamation, but containing valuable matter, deserving perusal from all those who take any interest in this most important question.

The author proposes that, in settling those alterations in the King's titles which the union will require, the words *King of France* should be omitted; and that the insignia in the armorial bearings, which have relation to that title, shall give place to such as are emblematical of the union:—he advises a land-tax to be established in Ireland, to be wholly expended on erecting a Royal Dockyard at Kerry, or any other more eligible situation on the Southern coast of that country:—he suggests that two East India ships should land their cargoes at Dublin, to save the Irish the trouble and expence of coming to London to purchase tea, &c.;—and he recommends a land-tax for the whole empire, in proportion to the value of the land.

The greater part of the pamphlet is occupied by discussing the advantages of this latter species of revenue; which, according to Dr. Gray, may be expected in time to supersede all the duties on imports and exports, and on home consumption; and thus to enable us to convert the ports of Great Britain and Ireland into free ports.

FRANCE.

Art. 22. *Resolutions of the Society of the Friends of the Republican Constitution at L* against the Constitution of the Year VIII. of the French Republic. Addressed to the GOOD CITIZENS, sitting on the 15th Nivose, Year VIII. 5th January 1800, old Style. 8vo. 6d. Lowe.

This may be regarded as a bill of indictment, or articles of impeachment, against Bonaparte; charging him with a series of high crimes

crimes and misdemeanours against the State, completed by a traiterous usurpation of the chief government of France.—We are ignorant of the authority or authenticity of this paper; the present translation of which is accompanied by a copy of the original French. A *Nota Bene* by the editor tells us that ‘only a few copies of these Résolutions have appeared in France, the minister Fouché having caused the edition to be seized.’

POETIC, &c.

Art. 23. *The Caldron, or Follies of Cambridge. A Satire.* 8vo.
1s. Robinsons.

Of this poem, we think that the versification far exceeds the matter and imagery. Let us take a specimen :

‘ First I survey the stern divan that dwell
In the lone horrors of yon silent cell,
Where dusty folios grace an unswept room,
Where cobwebs cast a consecrated gloom,
Curves leagu’d with curvoids rusty falchions wield,
And Calculation shakes her Gorgon shield,
And Wit and Wisdom their lost sons deplore,
Whelm’d in the depths of analytic lore.
The stern divan, on demonstration bent,
Brook not that aught suspend the firm intent.
History is trash, and Criticism a curse,
And sage Philosophy, a babbling nurse.
No grace can sooth them, and no muse can move;
’Tis Milton sings—but what does Milton prove?
Dead but to speculation, they behold
Problems their murky mysteries unfold.
Fancy disgusts: scarce Truth herself can please:
Not Newton charms them in the mask of ease.’

What is here meant by the stern *divan*? why is the shield of calculation *Gorgonian*? surely this epithet could not arise from so puerile an idea, as that of the connection of the etymological meaning of the word calculation with that of Gorgonian, as relating to the effect of Medusa’s head in turning every thing to stone.—The satire is not particularly directed against the follies of Cambridge, but also at the follies of the age, the passion of young men for gambling, New-market, lounging, driving, &c. The machinery of Hecate, the Weird Sisters, and the Caldron, seem useless: every thing might have been said that has been said, without their introduction. The melody and strength of the verses, we have already observed, far exceed their sense and ideal force: but we wonder that the author should not have been more attentive to the propriety of imagery in his first four lines:

‘ Mid Scotia’s wilds, unknowing and unknown,
On silent wing my noon of life has flown,
And evening bears me with declining light
To the dread confines of sepulchral night.’

Why does the *noon* of life fly on silent wing? 'If this image could be justified by classical or other authority, the next line would be objectionable, 'And evening *bears* me,' &c.

Art. 24. *Cupid and Psyche*. A Mythological Tale, from the Golden Ass of Apuleius. 8vo. 2s. Wright. 1799.

This poem possesses considerable merit. The versification is generally easy and harmonious, and the imagery is lively and spirited. The following description of Psyche discovering Cupid is animated and poetical :

- Her mantle o'er them Darkness throws,
On the UNKNOWN soft languors creep,
Who leaves his false one to repose
In the more faithful arms of sleep.
- Now trembling, now distracted ; bold,
And now irresolute she seems ;
The blue lamp glimmers in her hold,
And in her hand the dagger gleams.
- Prepar'd to strike she verges near,
The blue light glimmering from above,
The HIDEOUS SIGHT expects with fear,
—And gazes on the GOD OF LOVE!
- Not such a young and frolic child
As poets feign, or sculptors plan ;
No, no, she sees with transport wild,
Eternal beauty veil'd in man.
- His cheek's ingrain'd carnation glow'd
Like rubies on a bed of pearls,
And down his ivory shoulders flow'd
In clustering braids his golden curls.
- Soft as the cygnet's down his wings,
And as the falling snow-flake fair,
Each light elastic feather springs,
And dances in the balmy air.
- The pure and vital stream he breathes,
Makes e'en the lamp shine doubly bright,
With its gay flame enamour'd wreathes,
And gleams with scintillating light.
- There loosely strung that bow was hung,
Whose twanging cord Immortals fear,
And on the floor his quiver flung,
Lay, stor'd with many an arrow, near.
- Grasp'd in her sacrilegious hands,
She with the arrows play'd, and laugh'd—
The crimson on her finger stands,
She's wounded by the poison'd shaft!
- The red blood riots in her veins,
Her feverish pulses wildly beat,

• Whilst

- Whilst every waken'd fibre strains
And throbs with palpitating heat.
- With eyes, where sparkling rapture swims,
She contemplates his sleeping grace,
Hangs fondly o'er his well-turn'd limbs,
And joins to his her fervid face.
- But as her views intent to foil,
Or as that form it long'd to kiss,
Dropt from the lamp the burning oil,
Arous'd him from his dreams of bliss.
- Sudden loud thunders shake the skies,
Th' enchanted palace sinks around,
And sanguine-streaming fires arise,
Meteorous from the trembling ground.
- And swift as when in fury hurls
JOVE's red right arm the forky light,
The wounded Godhead eddying whirls
Into the heaven of heavens his flight.

Art. 25. *Grecian Prospects*; a Poem in two Cantos. By Mr. Polwhele. 8vo.. 2s. 6d. Chapple.

In this poem, a Welsh bard is supposed to be contemplating a beautiful prospect in the isle of Lesbos; and, as the objects sink before him in the shades of night, he laments the present degraded situation of the Grecian States. Then falling into a slumber, the guardian genius of Greece appears before him; corrects his mistaken notions as to the hopeless degeneracy of the natives; shews him all Greece and the Grecian Isles illuminated with a supernatural splendor, and the British fleet delivering Cephalonia and Corcyra from Gallic tyranny; and foretells the revival of Grecian glory under the auspices of Britain.—An heroic tale is added in a postscript, originally forming part of the poem, but which was detached from a suspicion of its being defective in the unities.

In the execution of this poem, the author displays much classical taste and knowledge; and he seems to possess a considerable store of information concerning the present state of Greece and the Grecian Isles, of which he has agreeably contrived to give a partial detail in the notes. The subject of the poem is of an interesting nature, well adapted to the enthusiasm of the Pindaric Muse; and the style, images, and sentiments, possess in general a correspondent elevation. It appears to us, however, that a too anxious desire of avoiding what is tame, prosaic, and mean, has rendered the author in many respects inflated and obscure; by a puzzling inversion of style, and a too frequent use of obsolete and affected words. There is also a meretriciousness of splendor, arising from too profuse an introduction of gaudy epithets, and too liberal an accession of "alliteration's artful aid."

L A W.

Art. 26. *The Office of Sheriff*: shewing its History, Antiquity, Powers, and Duties; the Manner of appointing the High Sheriff, his
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his Under-Sheriff, and other Deputies; also the Election of Sheriffs of London and Middlesex, with the Bye-laws of the City relating thereto, and other useful Matter; together with the Nature of Actions by and against Sheriffs, including all the modern Determinations to the End of Trinity Term last, with necessary Precedents to Returns of Writs, &c. The 2d Edition, corrected and considerably improved. To which is added, the Office and Duty of Coroner, with an Appendix of useful Precedents. By John Impey of the Inner Temple, Author of 'The Modern Pleader,' calculated for the Office of an Attorney: and 'The Practice of the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas.' 8vo. pp. 800. 12s. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

When we consider the powers and duties attached to the office of Sheriff, it becomes a matter of considerable importance that a full, distinct, and accurate treatise on this subject should exist. The authority of this officer is partly judicial and partly ministerial; and he is, in his own county, the principal conservator of the king's peace. In his judicial capacity, he hears and determines all causes not involving the value of more than forty shillings; and in his ministerial capacity, he is bound to execute all process issuing out of the King's courts of justice.

A comprehensive and useful work entitled, *Officium Vicecomitum*, was published in folio in the years 1682 and 1700, from the papers of Michael Dalton, a Master in Chancery, and author of the *Justice*;—and in the years 1710, 1718, and 1727, the *Complete Sheriff* (in 8vo) appeared, to which was added the Office and Duty of a Coroner. From that period to the year 1786, when Mr. Impey published the first edition of the present work, (which we noticed in our 80th vol. p. 266,) nothing on the subject has (to our knowledge) been made public. The author has now rendered his volume more worthy of the acceptance of the profession, by the diligence and attention which he has bestowed on it: all the cases applicable to this branch of our law, which have been decided in our courts down to the end of the last Trinity Term, have been inserted.

The office and power of a Coroner are also, like those of the Sheriff, either judicial or ministerial, but principally of the former description. Since Mr. Umfreville's publication (in 1761) on the subject of this very ancient officer of our law, who in some cases is the substitute of the Sheriff in executing civil process, no tract has been printed. Mr. Impey's consideration of this subject is in course a valuable accession to his work; and indeed he has rendered it a very useful compilement by the variety of information which he has given, and the judgment with which he has arranged his materials.

Art. 27. *The Practical Register in Chancery.* With the Addition of the Modern Cases, and a copious Index. By John Wyatt of the Inner Temple, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 500. 9s. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

The *Practical Register in Chancery* was published anonymously in the year 1714, and has always been considered as an accurate and useful collection of the standing orders and rules of the court. It had the honour of being praised by Lord Hardwicke, and of being

recommended to the attention of the profession as the best work on the subject.—The utility of compilations of this description is evident, and sensibly felt by practitioners. The scarcity of the book, and the reputation which it deservedly bears, have induced Mr. Wyatt to publish the present edition; in which many valuable additions will be found, that incontestably prove the diligence and judgment of the editor.

Art. 28. *A System of the Law of Marine Insurances*, with three Chapters on Bottomry; on Insurances on Lives; and on Insurances against Fire. By James Allan Park, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn. The 4th Edition, with considerable Additions. Royal 8vo. 14s. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

We have on more than one occasion mentioned this work in terms of commendation; and every succeeding impression has justified the praise which we have bestowed. The value of the present edition is considerably increased, by the author having inserted the various important cases on this subject of our law, which have been decided in the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas since the year 1796.—An account of the nature and plan of this publication may be found in our 80th vol. p. 344.

Art. 29. *A Treatise of Equity*. With the Addition of Marginal References and Notes, by John Fonblanque, Esq. Barrister at Law. Second Edition, with Additions. 2 Vols. 8vo. 19s. Boards. Clarke and Son. 1799.

In our 13th and 15th volumes, N. S. we gave an account of the first edition of this valuable treatise, which has usually been ascribed by the profession to Mr. Ballow of Lincoln's Inn, though its author is not certainly known; the work having been originally published without a name.—The additions made by the present editor entitle him to high praise, on account of the diligence and judgment which they display; they are indeed so considerable, as greatly to exceed the size of the original publication.

In this edition, the cases applicable to the subject, which have been decided since the appearance of the former impression, are inserted.—We have not often in the course of our reading been favoured with an opportunity of perusing a work, from which we have derived so much information, so appositely and accurately arranged, as from this *Treatise of Equity*; and we recommend it with perfect confidence to the attention of the public.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 30. *Remarks on the Prefaces prefixed to the first and second Volumes of a Work entitled, The Holy Bible*, or Books accounted Sacred by Jews and Christians, faithfully translated, &c. &c. by the Rev. Alexander Geddes, LL. D. in four Letters addressed to him, by the Rev. John Earle. 12mo. 2s. Booker, &c.

The bold criticisms and conjectures of Dr. Geddes, in the prefaces to his translation of the Bible, must inevitably shock the prejudices and excite the displeasure of a great part of the Christian world. We therefore are not surprised at this publication, which appears

to come from the pen of one of the doctor's catholic brethren: but it rather evinces the author's disapprobation of Dr. Geddes's manner of speaking of the Hebrew Scriptures, than his ability to contend with him. Dr. Geddes's intrepid assertions demand examination: but they are not to be overthrown by such flippant remarks as are contained in these letters.—We mean not to engage in the controversy: but most of what Mr. Earle has advanced is in our opinion very superficial, and admits of easy refutation.

Art. 31. *Four Sermons*, preached at the fifth General Meeting of the Missionary Society, May 8th, 9th, 10th, 1799: by the Rev. T. Finlay, Paisley. Rev. J. Tozer, Taunton. Rev. J. Moody, Warwick. Rev. G. C. Brodbelt, Aston-Sandford. To which are added, the Report of the Directors, the Proceedings of the Meeting, and a List of the Subscribers. By order of the Directors, published for the Benefit of the Society. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapman.

When these discourses were delivered, the success which had attended the labours of the Missionaries* opened to the society the most flattering prospects. In the introduction, it is remarked, 'each annual meeting of the society, to the fifth, which we now record, has increased in zeal, vigour, and unanimity; indeed, the favourable circumstances which have attended the first efforts of the society, have strongly inscribed the Divine approbation on the objects to which they have been directed, and warrant us, at least, to hope, that the Lord will eventually crown them with success.'

The first sermon is on *The universal Diffusion of Divine Knowledge; with its happy Effects*. It was preached before the society at Surrey Chapel, May 8th, 1799, by the Rev. Mr. Finlay, who took his text from Isaiah, xi. 6—9. "*The wolf also shall dwell with the lamb,*" &c. The second sermon is on *The Excellency of Prayer in aid of Missionary Exertions*, by the Rev. Mr. Tozer. The third, by the Rev. Mr. Moody, has for its subject, *The Dominion of Jesus favourable to the Heathen*: the text from Zechariah, ix. 10. "*He shall speak peace to the heathen.*" The fourth sermon treats of *The Prophecy of the Extension of the Church*: from Isaiah, lxii. 6, 7. by the Rev. Mr. Brodbelt.

The subjects of these discourses, as well as the manner in which they are treated, are expressive of the strong hopes entertained, that the endeavours of the society would be crowned with that success which the members were encouraged to expect from such prosperous beginnings.

The report of the directors, which was read at a meeting of the society held at Haberdashers' Hall, (May 8th, 1799,) contains an account of the proceedings to that date, and of their future views and prospects. Respecting the latter, the following curious information is given: 'Our hopes, likewise, have been raised by an unexpected solicitation from a General Bowles, who was providentially led to reside in London a few months, to send Missionaries to the vast nation of Creek Indians, situated on the Gulf of Mexico. Being one of the chiefs of that nation, and pleased, on inquiry, with the objects of our institution, he promised to lay the matter before a

* See the first article in this Review.

national council on his return, and favour us immediately with the result. Should his proposal be generally approved by them, we trust, you will empower the directors to accept the invitation, and send whatever number of persons may appear best suited for the work.'

The following statement bears testimony to the exertions and zeal of the society: 'We have eighty-nine persons already sent out; including women and children. Some of these must be maintained in their stations at a large annual expence; and our calls in Providence will speedily require us to double the number.'

At the end of the sermons, is an alphabetical list of the contributors to the Missionary Society, with the sums contributed: also an account of the disbursements.

Art. 32. *The Importance of Religion considered, and the relative Duties it inculcates; with Meditations, occasional Prayers, and Hymns: designed for the assistance of Youth.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Scatcherd. 1799.

This work has a good tendency; though to some parts we might offer objections, and though in some instances the author appears not perfectly consistent.—He tells us, respecting revelation, 'What is *clear* in Christianity, we shall find to be sufficient: what is *dubious*, will appear unnecessary to be decided; and what is most *obscure*, will teach us to bear with the opinions which others may have formed on the same subject.' This is rational and scriptural; yet, when he comes to speak, as he occasionally does, though rather in a slight and incidental way, of fundamentals and orthodoxy, it may not exactly correspond. One chapter brought to our recollection some of the earlier publications of that respectable and venerable man the late Rev. William Law, some of whose works furnish most excellent, interesting, and engaging instructions, when separated from those chimeras among which, in his last years particularly, he seems to have been bewildered and almost overwhelmed.—In the concluding pages of the present performance, we find a slight, very slight account of the several books of the Sacred writings. It is concluded by a few hymns, chiefly selected from Dr. Doddridge's volumes.

Art. 33. *Influence of Religion in promoting the Peace and Prosperity of Kingdoms and States.* 4to. 1s. Longman. 1799.

'Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, observes in a letter which he wrote to his friend and minister, Chancellor Oxenstiern, not long before he was assassinated,—"However the cause be good and just, the event of war is uncertain on account of our sins."—Such is the motto of this discourse, which is declamatory, and somewhat rhapsodical; abounding in quotations from Latin authors, and from others of more modern date. When and where, or whether, it was preached, we are not told: but, if we may trust the title page, it has arrived at a second edition. Its general position is doubtless true and important, that religion is the best security for public and private peace and happiness: but to effect this purpose it must be somewhat more, somewhat far beyond what is merely nominal, political, and external.—The appendix calls our attention to the fall of Athens, Tyre, Corinth, and other famous cities and states.

POLITICAL, &c.

Art. 34. *Considerations concerning Peace.* By a Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1800.

A lively and ardent advocate for the return of peaceable times here states the common arguments on both sides of the Great Question, "Peace or War?" according to the present circumstances; and this he does with as much fairness and impartiality, as can reasonably be expected from him who openly stands forth as the cordial friend of one of the two alternatives, and the decided enemy of the other. There is an air of novelty in his mode of thinking and reasoning on this most highly interesting subject, which will keep the reader's attention alive to the matter proposed to his consideration: but some of the writer's notions may appear fanciful; as where he supposes that our Prime Minister will in course, as *Minister*, prefer war. He proposes, indeed, a method for inducing Mr. Pitt to become the immediate and happy instrument of peace to this country: but, for the particulars of his plan, we must refer to his pamphlet, p. 5. *et seq.*

The writer's arguments, however, in support of his idea of official influence over a Minister's conduct in regard to Peace and War, do not appear such as will be universally deemed unworthy of the serious regard of the public.—On the whole, it were to be wished that this little tract could obtain a general circulation, and be seriously perused among those ranks of people who have leisure to reflect, and inclination to judge, with the utmost freedom from *party influence*:—but what is our hope, at present, that among us such freedom exists!

Art. 35. *Speech of the Right Hon. William Pitt*, delivered in the House of Commons, Feb. 3, 1800, on a Motion for an Address to the Throne, approving of the Answers returned to the Communications from France relative to a Negotiation for Peace. 8vo. 2s. Wright. 1800.

The adversaries of Mr. Pitt never call in question his oratorical powers; which seem on no occasion to have been more successfully exerted than on the present. We doubt not that the speech before us will be perused on account of its eloquence, and of the ability which it displays, when the tide of ages shall have swept out of view the important question of which it treats.—The publication apparently possesses more of fidelity and accuracy than generally belong to those of this class. Why do our orators think it beneath them to preserve from oblivion the efforts of their eloquence? This age, we are certain, would furnish specimens in no respect inferior to those which electrified Greece, and called forth the unbounded applauses of Rome. A regard for their own fame, for the honor of the age, and for the gratification of posterity, constitute not the only reasons to be assigned in favor of this practice. It would make future ages more witnesses of the transactions of the present day; it would add to the incitements to integrity; and it would furnish additional checks to corruption,

The Minister here labours to lay the guilt of aggression to the charge of France; and we think that he has been more successful
in

in the present than in any former attempt. Many, who were once decidedly of opinion that France was not really the aggressor, now own that recent publications have very much shaken that opinion: but perhaps the farther disclosure of documents is necessary to a complete solution of this complicated question, now more curious than important.—In the present speech, the character of the French Revolution is ably developed, and the dangers with which it threatens Europe are strongly depicted: we should be glad to have it proved that these dangers are less real than they are here stated to be. The orator's attack on the conduct and character of the chief Consul is as able in its kind, as any thing to be found among the remains of ancient, or the happiest displays of modern eloquence. Indignation is worked up to the highest pitch, and made to bear with fearful force upon its object; and while, as a whole, this act of accusation is most powerful, some strokes which occur in the course of it may boast peculiar felicity. The reference to the threat of dictating peace to England on the banks of the Thames, the promise made to Venice and the subsequent conduct, and the comments on the instructions to General Kleber, are of this sort.—If the governors of belligerent states be destined, like the heroes of Homer, to engage in contests of invective, this attack on Bonaparte will furnish a lesson for future combatants. The Consul may have soldiers and commanders who will match those of his enemies: but we think that he will look in vain, throughout the whole territory of the republic, for a champion who can wield the weapons of declamation so dextrously as the British Prime Minister.

Of the other and more important merits of the speech, we need not say much. It has been submitted to a more severe ordeal. Immediately on its delivery, it underwent the examination of the great-master of debate, and a more critical and able scrutiny even he never conducted*. Many fair and promising outworks certainly gave way before this masterly attack: but whether the minister has been wholly beaten off the ground, we leave to the determination of the public. To us, the matter appears to stand thus: *primâ facie*, it makes against any power to reject pacific offers: but, if the offers be insidious, if demonstrably they cannot come to a favorable issue, is a state, in compliance with mere ceremony, and to the manifest prejudice of its interests, obliged to listen to such overtures at all times, at the will of its enemy? Was it morally certain that, at the time in question, feasible terms could not have been obtained from France? Would treating at all, at that time, have paralyzed the alliance? Was there fair ground for expecting, that a farther continuance of the war could reduce France within limits compatible with the interests of Britain, and the safety of Europe; and that a short prolongation of the contest would cause the peace to be more than proportionably secure and durable? Can France have the Alps and the Rhine

* See p. 314. of the Review for March. The public are probably aware that a very correct edition of Mr. Fox's speech has been published by Debrett: that which came into our hands was prior, but far less accurate.

for boundaries, and Switzerland and Holland in her power, without being dangerous to Europe?

These questions must be satisfactorily resolved, before judgment can be given in this cause.—Schemes for punishing Bonaparte and avenging the Bourbons we do not consider to be British concerns: if the Minister be engaged in any such projects, we regret it, and we wholly dissent from him on those points: but, as far as it is his object to reduce the power of France, whether she be republican or monarchical, so as to incapacitate her from disturbing the peace of Europe, and endangering the security of the British empire, every enlightened lover of his country must wish him success.

Art. 36. *Substance of the Speech of the Hon. Thomas Erskine*, in the House of Commons, 3d of February, 1800; on the Motion for an Address to the Throne *approving* the Refusal of Ministers to treat with the French Republic. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

Mr. Erskine's eloquence will always engage the eager attention of the public; and his fixed and consistent political principles are so well known, that no one will wonder at his total *disapprobation* of the *negative* answer given by our government to the late pacific proposal from France. This animated condemnation of the conduct of our Minister, in the present instance, merits preservation among collections of the State-papers of the times.

Art. 37. *Thoughts on the late Overtures of the French Government to this Country*, in a Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt. Written previous to the Recommencement of Hostilities in the Spring of the Year 1800. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard.

This nameless politician highly approves the conduct of our government in rejecting the late pacific overture from France, and as highly compliments Mr. Pitt, in particular, for whatever share he had in that measure. On the other hand, the French Consul is plenteously be-rogu'd, be-fool'd, and be-scoundrel'd, for his impudence: as he doubtless ought to be, *by every loyal, British subject!* A dog! if we but had him here, in Leather-lane, we'd teach him to cry "PEACE, peace, when there is NO PEACE!" *

Art. 38. *The Question of Scarcity plainly stated, and Remedies considered.* With Observations on permanent Measures to keep Wheat at a more regular Price. By Arthur Young, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. Richardson. 1800.

Plenty and Scarcity must both make themselves manifest: but in the one case the grower gets too little for his grain, and in the other too much. If there were so little in hand of the crop of 1798, as has been stated, to aid the deficient crop of 1799, the price of wheat in 1798 ought to have been higher than it then was: if the surplus in hand exceeded what has been stated, the present price of corn is too high. The fact is, that, when fear and alarm seize the public mind, and farmers possess themselves with the idea of advantageous markets, it is difficult to elicit the truth in the ordinary methods of inquiry.

* Jer. vi. 14.

It is certain that what are termed scarce seasons always enrich the agriculturist; and every investigation of a public nature, whether by the Legislature, or by Boards, or by Committees, appointed for the purpose, uniformly effects a rise in the price of grain, and augments the agricultural capital of the kingdom. The question of scarcity is favorable to farmers, and they will answer it with a view to their own interest: how, then, are we to depend on a correspondence with them, as designed to ascertain the quantity of grain? Can we expect them to say to themselves, "we ought to be satisfied with 18l. or 20l. *per* load for our wheat," when, by the least hint of the danger of famine, they are likely to obtain from 25l. to 30l. *per* load? We may fairly suppose that the quantity of corn in the kingdom exceeds their statements: yet it must be owned that, through the visitation of Heaven, the last harvest was unproductive,—that therefore the deficiency is real,—and that an advanced price is necessary and unavoidable.

Mr. Arthur Young has endeavoured to collect and exhibit a variety of facts and inferences on the important subject of his present pamphlet; as,

- ' I. That an average crop is between 22 and 24 bushels *per* acre.
- ' II. That the people increase more than cultivation extends*.
- ' III. That the deficiency amounts to about one-third, and therefore accounts for the scarcity without recurring to any other cause†.
- ' IV. That the stock in hand last harvest, on an average of the kingdom, was not greater than common.
- ' V. That the parliamentary measures hitherto proposed are insufficient, however meritorious.
- ' VI. That the application of oats and barley, reducing the consumption of wheat, have had effect at present, and might with a very extended cultivation of potatoes, complete the remedy.
- ' VII. That the return of similar situations may be expected, with so increasing a population.
- ' VIII. That the best prevention is—to render as general as possible the system of cottagers having land for potatoes and cows; and to pass a general inclosure act as speedily as it can be done.'

We strongly approve the hints thrown out by Mr. Young on the subject of giving land to cottagers; and assisting them so to cultivate that land, and to turn it to such an account, as will diminish the consumption of wheaten corn. In inclosure schemes, we fear, this benevolent and (we may add) equitable object is not sufficiently prominent. Commons and wastes are inclosed, and turned over by the

* This is a position, especially in a time of war, which may be questioned. Are our villages too populous? Are there unemployed men who call out for the breaking up of commons and wastes, that they may be set to work? Is the land already enclosed cultivated to its acmé of improvement?

† If this be true, the peculiar hand of Providence is excluded as the cause of this national calamity. Besides, there must then have been a scarcity every year, for many years back; which will not be admitted.

plough:

plough: but are the poor more comfortable? are the Poor-Rates diminished?

Mr. Young suggests the expediency of registering the acres of wheat and-rye sown throughout the kingdom. This may be a wise measure:—but we are not sure of the policy of making public all the details of this pamphlet. They merit the considerations of the Board of Agriculture, to which its Secretary may have submitted them: but the publication of them is not likely to lower the price of grain at Bear-Quay.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 39. *An Essay on the Theory and Practice of Bleaching*, wherein the Sulphuret of Lime is recommended as a Substitute for Pot-Ash. By William Higgins, M. R. I. A. Professor of Chemistry and Mineralogy at the Repository of the Dublin Society. 8vo. 2s. Verner and Hood. 1799.

In the preface to this treatise, Mr. Higgins claims the honor of having been the first antiphlogistian in England, and of having combated the old doctrine in his *Comparative View of the Phlogistic and Antiphlogistic Theories*, which fell under our notice in 1789*; and he seems to think himself hardly treated, in being excluded from the reputation of having contributed to establish the new chemical theory. It rests with the surviving French chemists, to inform us whether they derived any assistance from Mr. Higgins's book; or whether they have yet perused it. He is certainly correct in stating the period at which he declared against phlogiston: but the ignorance of the most eminent chemists, respecting the existence of his book, shews that it had made a very slight impression on the public.

The body of the pamphlet is drawn up with precision, but it contains only well-known facts; if we except the author's recommendation of the sulphuret of lime, as a substitute for the expensive article of pot-ash, in condensing the oxygenated muriatic gas. We shall transcribe his account of the mode of preparing the sulphuret:

'The sulphuret of lime is prepared in the manner following:—Sulphur, or brimstone in fine powder, four pounds, lime well slaked and sifted, twenty pounds, water sixteen gallons; these are all to be well mixed and boiled for about half an hour in an iron vessel, stirring them briskly from time to time. Soon after the agitation of boiling is over, the solution of the sulphuret of lime clears, and may be drawn off free from the insoluble matter, which is considerable, and which rests upon the bottom of the boiler†. The liquor in this state, is pretty nearly of the colour of small beer, but not quite so transparent.

'Sixteen gallons of fresh water are afterwards to be poured upon the

* See M. Rev. vol. lxxxi. p. 197.

† Although lime is one of the constituent principles of the sulphuret, yet being so intimately united to the sulphur, it has no longer the property of lime; upon the same principle that sulphuric acid in sulphat of pot-ash, has not the property of that acid.'

'insoluble

insoluble dregs in the boiler, in order to separate the whole of the sulphuret from them. When this clears (being previously well agitated) it is also to be drawn off and mixed with the first liquor; to these again, thirty-three gallons more of water may be added, which will reduce the liquor to a proper standard for steeping the cloth.

‘ Here we have (an allowance being made for evaporation, and for the quantity retained in the dregs) sixty gallons of liquor from four pounds of brimstone.

‘ Although sulphur by itself is not in any sensible degree soluble in water, and lime but very sparingly so, water dissolving but about one seven-hundredth part of its weight of lime; yet the sulphuret of lime is highly soluble *.’

If Mr. Higgins’s experiments be accurate, a considerable saving must result from his plan, which well deserves the attention of Government.

Art. 40. *The Impolicy of prohibiting the Exportation of Rock-Salt from England to Scotland*, to be refined there, illustrated. By John Girvin. 8vo. pp. 80. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

This writer pleads, with great force and clearness of argument, for permitting the exportation of rock-salt to Scotland, on the same terms on which it is admitted into Ireland. He shews that the effect of the present high price in Scotland is a considerable annual loss to the revenue, by smuggling; and that the Scottish salt-manufacturers would really find their interest in using the saturated solution of rock-salt, in conjunction with sea-water. It is indeed lamentable, that any remains of antient prejudices should prevent the inhabitants of this island from benefiting each other, by a free exchange of their reciprocal productions.

Art. 41. *An Examination of the Merits and Tendency of the Pursuits of Literature*. Part First. By W. Burdon, A. M. formerly Fellow of Emanuel College, Cambridge 8vo. pp. 94. 2s. Conder. 1799.

The Pursuer is here very sharply pursued. Mr. Burdon not merely discusses the tendency of the work proposed to be examined, but follows the anonymous author even to his *adverbs*, *conjunctions*, and *prepositions*, and points out the most inconsiderable misquotations. Here Mr. B. will be thought to manifest a little hypercriticism.—In reply to the question, why he, to whom there is not even an allusion in the “Pursuits,” should stand forwards as an examiner and champion, his answer is, that ‘it is not the men but the principles which are attacked, that he is anxious to defend;—that he combats the author, not because he has the talent to be dangerous, but because he has the power to misrepresent;—not because he is vigorous, but because he is venomous,’ &c. Though Mr. B. allows that the satirist ‘has sometimes a rare felicity of expression,’ yet, detesting

‘ * When the above proportion of lime and sulphur is boiled with only twelve gallons of water, the sulphuret partly crystallizes upon cooling, and when once crystallized, it is not easy of solution.’

his

his principles and mode of satire, he pronounces him to be a contemptible author.

For the present, we shall content ourselves with adding an extract as a specimen of Mr. B.'s manner.

‘I will now return to our author, with his minor and his major powers of democracy, and remark, that with singular ingenuity he has included the greater in the lesser, when he tells us, that the minor powers of infidelity might be dispersed, from Voltaire down to Godwin and Paine; this is liberal in the design, and is ingenious in the execution: it is a pity it is not quite intelligible.

“From writers of this character, my thoughts are directed to the professors of *that superstitious corruption* of Christianity, which *originally* gave occasion to those attempts, to which it has pleased Providence to permit a temporary success, to scourge the nations of Europe. I am sure the plain simplicity of the Protestant religion of England could never have suggested so daring, so extensive a project. I have therefore spoken at large of the Roman Catholic religion, *and its professors, and the emigrants and French priests.*”—From infidelity to popery, is not the common transition, rather the reverse; but I give our author credit for seeing any connection between the two. This is perhaps the most extraordinary passage in the whole book, for the arrogance, illiberality, and ignorance it displays. Our author is here hand in glove with Providence: in short, nothing is hid from him; he can tell to an iota the causes of all the great events in the world. Popery gave occasion to the French Revolution; the success of that Revolution is only temporary, and meant to punish the rest of Europe who have corrupted Christianity, I suppose: but the best of all this is, that our author knows and is convinced that the Protestant religion is plain and simple, that there are no difficulties in its creed, no follies in its discipline, no contradictions in its liturgy, and that our bishops can boast an uninterrupted succession from Christ and his apostles: so thought the papists, and so think they still; and who is to decide between us? but I had forgot, our author is the judge, and all is right. Alas! I doubt we have no infallible criterion but time for all the opinions of men; with our author, their truth or error depends on their being established or not; and if he had lived in the days of Popery, he must have died a Papist: so much for his judgment. Let the author consult Longinus and Quintilian, to be instructed how frequent copulatives enervate the style of a writer.”

A second part of this work has recently been published, but we received it too late for notice in this Review.

Art: 42. *A Letter to the Rev. John Milner, M.A. F.S.A.* Author of the Civil and Ecclesiastical History of Winchester, occasioned by his False and Illiberal Aspersions on the Memory and Writings of Dr. Benjamin Hoadly, formerly Bishop of Winchester. By Robert Hoadly Ashe, D.D. 8vo. pp. 96. 2s. 6d. Bickerstaff. 1799.

We are not surprized that Dr. H. Ashe should publicly notice the unhandsome mention made of his celebrated relation Dr. Benjamin Hoadly, by the author of the Civil and Ecclesiastical History of

Winchester*. It is very evident that Mr. Milner, as a catholic, does not admire the character and writings of this truly protestant and liberal-minded Bishop; and that he was resolved to lose no opportunity of giving him what Dr. Johnson calls "*a hard knock*." On this occasion, Dr. Hoadly Ashe takes up the cudgels, and with zeal and effect fights the battle of his deceased friend. He clearly proves that Mr. M. has committed mistakes in his account of the Bishop, and (what is more) that his remarks are dashed with an acrimonious and illiberal tincture. The reflections on Bishop Hoadly's monument in Winchester cathedral were manifestly designed to stain his memory; and though, perhaps, all that Dr. A. has advanced will not induce Mr. Milner to retract them, he may thank the Dr. for correcting the errors into which he appears to have fallen respecting the Bishop, and may rectify them in a future edition or in a subsequent volume of his work. It is always to be lamented when historians write under the influence of strong prejudices; and though they may gratify transient illiberality, they are sure to offend and disgust impartial posterity.

Art. 43. *Rambles through Ireland*, by a French Emigrant. Translated from the French of Monsieur de Latocnaye—by an Irishman. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. Boards. Robinsons, &c. 1799.

An account of Ireland in its *present* state, dictated by an informed, inquisitive, impartial, and philosophic mind, would be a valuable and interesting present to the public. We know little of that country; and yet it is essential to the interests of Ireland, and in course to the common well-being of the empire, that it should be known thoroughly. Many very important changes must have taken place in its œconomy and its circumstances, since the tour of Mr. Yonng was written; yet we have no valuable account of the state of Ireland since that time. Its agriculture has been improved, its manufactures have been increased, its wealth and population greatly augmented, and the manners and principles of its people considerably changed:—but how shall we measure these great improvements and variations in the state of Ireland? A dry detail of revenue accounts, or the interested and distorted testimony of political partizans, are the only documents which we possess to guide us.

These Rambles do not altogether supply this want. The author is a very good-humoured traveller, *toujours gai*, generally droll, and sometimes inquisitive: but he is also in general superficial. Indeed he does not profess much: he modestly entitles himself not a tourist, but a Rambler: not a man who travels with the special design of observing and depicting life and manners: but one who wanders from place to place, without any fixed view of acquiring or imparting information.—M. de Latocnaye is one of those unfortunate men whom an attachment to a certain set of political principles, or to those who entertained them, has sent wandering through the world in the character of emigrants; and it was with a view of procuring support in this destitute state that he became a traveller, and a writer of

* See p. 415. of this Review.

his travels. He had procured a great variety of commendatory letters from men of rank in both countries, which secured him an hospitable reception in almost every corner of Ireland in which he travelled; so much so, that, though he spent six months in making the tour of the Irish coast, he was but five times obliged to repose at an inn. He travelled on foot, with no luggage but what he carried on his back, and apparently without any cash but what his friends furnished. In the true spirit of his country, however, his heart was always light, and his imagination lively; and the reader who accompanies his rambles may learn from him, that a man may be poor without being melancholy; and, even with a light purse in a strange country, have his mind in tune for relishing existence.

It was immediately previous to the breaking out of the late rebellion, that M. de Latocnaye rambled through Ireland. The angry symptoms of the late revolt were then manifest, and are noticed by the author in a way which proves him to have been a very impartial and unprejudiced spectator.

We might have made several extracts from this publication, had we not already given sufficient specimens of the author's manner of thinking and writing, in our account of the original French. See *M. Rev. N.S.* vol. xxvi. p. 208.

Of the translation, we cannot speak very favourably;—the language is not very correct, nor has it any pretensions to elegance.

Art. 44. *Some brief Memoirs of the Life of David Hall; with an Account of the Life of his Father, John Hall.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. bound. Phillips.

David Hall must now have been dead many years; for we find one of his last letters dated A. D. 1755, and it appears that in 1753, he was upwards of seventy years of age: but whether any memoirs concerning him have been published before the appearance of this little volume, we are not informed. He belonged to the society of *Friends*, or *Quakers* as they have been more generally and illiberally denominated,—though not now, we trust, with any intention of disrespect. He was, we conclude, what is called an elder or minister among them; and notwithstanding his immediate employment in life, he appears to have exerted himself greatly in different and distant places, not merely to increase the number of his sect, but to engage them to the love and practice of piety and morality in all its branches. The small-pox, from which he recovered in early life, had nevertheless so debilitated his constitution as to incapacitate him for any trade suitable to his station; he therefore applied with great diligence to attain that share of learning which might qualify him for the instruction of youth; and accordingly he opened and conducted for many years, with reputation and success, as we apprehend, a boarding school at Skipton in Yorkshire. His memoirs and other writings are all in the style of the people with whom he was immediately connected; some of whose principles it is not always easy to explain, or, perhaps, to comprehend: yet they have a simplicity, an earnestness, and a mildness, united with good sense and affection, which recommend them to some regard amid all their peculiarities. To those of his own denomination, without doubt, this publication must be acceptable;

ceptable; and in the perusal, many may possibly find themselves, not wholly without reason, reproved and censured. Others, who are not united with them, should they disapprove its singularity, may yet derive some improvement by attending to the instruction and advice which it offers.

Art. 45. *A new and general Biographical Dictionary*: containing an historical and critical Account of the Lives and Writings of the most eminent Persons in every Nation; particularly the British and Irish; from the earliest Accounts of Time to the present Period. Wherein their remarkable Actions and Sufferings, their Virtues, Parts, and Learning are accurately displayed. With a Catalogue of their Literary Productions. A new Edition, in fifteen Volumes, greatly enlarged and improved. 8vo. 5l. 5s. Boards. Robinsons, &c.

The numerous advantages resulting from biography have been frequently discussed, and are universally acknowledged. The convenience of information being conveyed in the form of a dictionary is also sensibly felt, as no time is lost in searching after knowledge, which is by this method attained at the moment when it is required.—The present work is enriched with a great variety of important names which appear in no other collection. ‘Though this edition (as the preface informs us) is apparently extended only by the addition of three volumes, the actual augmentation is much greater; the volumes being not only, in general, thicker than before, but so printed as to contain in each page four or five lines more than a page of the preceding edition.’

We have thought it incumbent on us, from the magnitude and importance of the publication, to announce it to our readers; though it must be ranked among new editions, which it is not our constant practice to notice.—For our account of the 1st edition, see M. Rev. vol. xxviii. p. 210. also of the 2d edit. vol. lxxvi. p. 210.

CORRESPONDENCE.

‘For the MONTHLY REVIEW.

‘In the review of B. Faujas Saint Fond’s *Travels in England*, (p. 239, of the last month,) you introduce the following observation and quotation:

“M. Saint Fond was presented by Sir Joseph Banks with two ounces of the seed of a species of hemp obtained from China, of a quality superior to the hemp cultivated in Europe. This, on his return to France, he distributed amongst his most scientific friends; and he relates the success with which it was cultivated in the South of France.”

“I wait for peace,” says he, “to repay my obligations to the English, for it is no more than just to return that which they have so generously lent us. I should have published, a long time ago, the result of these experiments, but have been prevented by the melancholy remembrance which reminded me, that of eleven persons to whom I gave some of the seed from China, and who, with an enthusiasm for the public interest, devoted their whole attention to its cultivation, eight have

have been dragged to the scaffold, without respect for names signalized by virtue and talents. Buffon was dead—they took his son.”

‘About the time alluded to by Saint Fond, I received, also, seeds of this species of hemp, through the medium, I think, of the Society of Arts. Some of these were sown at Grove-Hill, and produced plants upwards of ten feet high; but the seeds did not acquire sufficient maturity to vegetate. A manufacturer of hemp made experiments on these plants, and gave me a written detail of the result, and of the superiority of the staple, which account I have mislaid.

‘Dr. Madison, of Williamsburg in Virginia, came to England to be consecrated Bishop of Virginia, about the period the seeds were introduced here; an illness under which he laboured occasioned the renewal of our early acquaintance, and on his return to Williamsburg, I sent him about half an ounce of the hemp seed, the receipt of which he acknowledged in a letter dated December 5th, 1791. “The hemp seed I have distributed among some gentlemen who are distinguished for their skill and attention, reserving a sufficiency for an experiment under my own view. Should it succeed according to your expectations, and I think our climate justifies every hope of success, you will have the happiness of having added a new source of real wealth to this country.”

‘In a subsequent letter, dated June 7th, 1793, he observes: “I have great pleasure in informing you, that the hemp of China, with the seed of which you favoured me, promises to be a valuable acquisition. It grew last year upwards of eleven feet in height; from the seed which was collected, I have now about a quarter of an acre, which is very flourishing, and which will enable me to make a decisive experiment as to its utility or superiority over the native hemp.”

‘I have been more particular in communicating this narrative, in hopes of its insertion into your Review, which is much read on the Continent of Europe, as well as of the New Hemisphere; and which may hence afford my old acquaintance, Saint Fond, the medium of knowing that this valuable vegetable is still cultivated; and the amiable and truly respectable Prelate, that he may oblige and enrich the community by distributing the seeds, and thereby promoting an important article of manufacture and trade.

J. C. LETTSOM.’

‘Sambrook-House, Basinghall-Street,

April 4, 1800.’

‘*A Young Student’s*’ letter, dated 7 April, is received. Before long, probably, we shall trouble the writer with an answer according to the address with which he has favored us: but we fear that we shall not be able to command time sufficient to resolve the various points of inquiry which he proposes.

We should be glad to oblige a *Constant Reader*, who dates from Worcester: but his requests would impose a duty on us which is entirely out of our province. At present, certainly, we have not time to answer his questions: if we can find leisure, we may perhaps take farther notice of them in our next Number.

☞ P. 309. l. 9. from bottom, Rev. March, for ‘reputable,’ *respectable*.

* * * The APPENDIX to this volume of the Monthly Review will be published with the Number for May, as usual.



A P P E N D I X

TO THE

THIRTY-FIRST VOLUME

OF THE

M O N T H L Y R E V I E W

E N L A R G E D.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Mémoires de l'Institut National, &c. i. e. Memoirs of the National Institute of the Sciences and the Arts, for the IVth Year of the Republic. Divided into three Volumes, treating, I. Of the Mathematical and Physical Sciences; II. Of the Moral and Political Sciences; III. Of Literature and the Fine Arts.* 4to. pp. about 700 each. Paris, 1798. London, imported by De Boffe. Price 3l. sewed.

IT was to counteract the torpor and blighting influence of some collegiate bodies, that associations of ingenious men were formed throughout Europe, about the middle and near the close of the seventeenth century. Drawn from various ranks and conditions in life, the members were united only by the love of science. The period was indeed most auspicious. The philosophy of the schools had fallen into discredit; and mankind were beginning to perceive, after ages of error, that the only safe road to the study of nature is by experiment and observation. At such a crisis, it was of the highest moment to fix and direct the public mind. The method of induction, however, demanding multiplied and expensive researches, the solitary application of the individual was unavailing; and it was essentially requisite to combine the labours of numerous bodies of men. The valuable discoveries which emanated from those societies engaged attention, and won general respect. Their memoirs became the repositories of physical *data*, and exhibited the successive steps in the progress of invention. The speedy exchange of ideas kindled emulation; and, by the

liberal discernment of the members, rising genius was fostered and brought forward to early notice.

Such was, at their origin, the beneficial influence of those incorporate bodies:—but the state of knowledge is now greatly altered; and the same reasons no longer exist, to recommend the institution of learned associations. A certain degree of information is very widely diffused, the philosophy of induction is fully established, and the literary journals afford easy and expeditious means of circulating discoveries. The world of science is a vast republic, connected among all its parts by sympathetic ties. Partial incorporations disturb the harmony of the whole, and impede the free circulation of benefits. If such associations also degenerate from the object of their institution; if they become actuated by a narrow exclusive spirit; and if, instead of anticipating the public judgment, they offer incense only to established reputation,—then their influence must be detrimental to the advancement of genuine science.

Other learned bodies, especially on the Continent, were founded on different principles. Deriving their support from the bounty of government, their members were limited in number; a circumstance which rendered the situation more an object of ambition; and as, previously to election, some public testimonies of the abilities of the candidate were required or expected, the honours of admission could never be flagrantly prostituted. The competition of talents excited a beneficial emulation; and, though the pecuniary emoluments were but slender, these establishments presented a most desirable retreat for men of genius, afforded them the means of pursuing their favourite studies, and held forth every encouragement and assistance to the promotion of knowledge.

It was with great concern, therefore, that we saw the academies in France suppressed during the phrenzy of *sansculottism*:—but, fortunately for the interests of humanity and science, that paroxysm was not of long duration. On the return of moderation, the academies were revived with new lustre, and were modelled after a plan more extensive, and better suited to the spirit of the age*. They are now comprehended under the title of NATIONAL INSTITUTE; which consists of one hundred and forty-four members resident at Paris, and a like number of associates dispersed in the departments. A certain proportion of learned foreigners are admitted as honorary members; of whom the number is restricted at present to twenty-four. The Institute is distributed into three classes:—

* See an account of the last volume, and dissolution, of the *Royal Academy of Sciences*, &c. at Paris, M. Rev. vol. xxviii. N.S. p. 529.

Mathematics and Natural Philosophy—Morality and Politics—Literature and the Fine Arts. Each of these classes is subdivided into several sections, having six members and six associates attached to each. The *First Class* contains ten sections, viz. *Mathematics—Mechanical Arts—Astronomy—Experimental Philosophy—Chemistry—Natural History—Botany—Anatomy and Animal History—Medicine and Surgery—Animal Oeconomy, and the Veterinary Science.* The *Second Class* contains six sections, viz. *Analysis of Sensations and Ideas—Morals—Legislature—Political Oeconomy—History and Geography.* The *Third Class* contains eight sections, viz. *Universal Grammar—Ancient Languages—Poetry—Antiquities—Painting—Sculpture—Architecture—and Music.* The classes have each an apartment assigned to them in the Louvre. They are to hold four public meetings annually; and at the close of each year, they are to make a circumstantial report to the Legislative Body respecting the progress of the arts and sciences.

These few particulars may be acceptable to such of our readers as are desirous of being acquainted with the constitution of the National Institute. We have now before us its first year's transactions, in three distinct volumes corresponding to the several classes. Our attention will be first directed to the volume containing the

MATHEMATICAL and PHYSICAL PAPERS.

This volume commences with proposing two prizes—1st, for a pocket time-keeper, to point out the decimal division of the day into hours, minutes, and seconds; and, 2dly, for the comparison of the nature, form, and uses, of the liver, in the different tribes of animals. The inventions approved by the class are a metallic thermometer by *Regnier*—crayons by *Conté*, being excellent substitutes for the English black-lead pencils—and anatomical preparations in wax by *Laumonier*.—Next follows a list of printed works which have been presented to the class.—The account of deceased members is no longer entitled *Eloge*, but denominated by the more modest appellation of *Notice on the Life and Works*. The first of these which occurs here is that of *Vandermonde*, by *M. Lapeyère*.

Vandermonde was born at Paris in 1735. His youth was devoted to study. About the age of thirty, he chanced to meet with the celebrated mathematician *Fontaine*, who conceived an affection for him, instructed him in his profound but obscure inventions, and encouraged him henceforth to devote himself strenuously to calculation and abstract science. He was admitted into the Academy of Sciences in 1771. Shortly afterward, he published a memoir on the resolution of equations,

and this was followed by a work on the *problems of situation*, a particular sort of combinations. He afterward treated of a new species of irrational quantities, and on the elimination of unknown quantities in algebraical equations. He was likewise fond of music; and in the years 1778 and 1780, he explained to the Academy the principles of a new system of harmony. In 1795 he was seized with a disorder in his breast which almost extinguished his voice, and gave other alarming symptoms. He continued, however, to perform his functions till he was carried off by a sudden and fatal attack on the 11 Nivose, fourth year (31 December, 1795).

The next article is a *Notice of the Life and Works of Alexander-Gui Pingré*, by M. Prony.—*Pingré* was born at Paris the 4th September 1711. At an early age, he was sent by his parents to be educated at Senlis, in a college established by the canons regular. He gave such marks of proficiency, and conceived such an attachment to his masters, that at sixteen he was received into the congregation; and, applying with unwearied assiduity to the study of divinity, he was appointed professor in that class at the age of twenty-four. Fourteen years were spent in that employment, till the theologian was involved in the disputes and troubles occasioned by the famous bull issued from the papal court in the middle of the century. Deprived of his chair and reduced to indigence, *Pingré* found a protector in *Le Cat*, the celebrated surgeon; a philosopher who was actuated by humanity and the love of science. He had founded an academy at Rouen; and thither he invited the ejected ecclesiastic to teach astronomy. From that date, *Pingré's* studies took a new direction. In consequence of his observation of the transit of Mercury over the disk of the Sun on the 6th May 1753, he was admitted a correspondent of the Academy of Sciences. His reputation now growing every day, he was at last recalled by his congregation to Paris, and settled at the abbey of St. Genevieve, where he shortly afterward erected an observatory. In every thing that required patience and labour, *Pingré* was fitted to excel. Under the direction of *Lemonnier*, he computed the nautical almanacs for several years; and he re-calculated the eclipses given in the celebrated work *L'Art de vérifier les dates*, and extended the list from the rise of the republic of Athens to the 208th year of the French republic;—in other words, to the year 2000. *Pingré* was admitted into the academy in 1756. He was sent to the Isle Rodrigue, and to Cape Français, to observe the memorable transits of Venus in 1761 and 1769. He also made three voyages between the years 1767 and 1777, for the purpose of trying the merits of chronometers in finding the longitude at sea. In 1783, he published his most considerable

siderable work, entitled *Cometographia*, containing every thing worth notice that can be collected relative to comets, in antient or modern times. This was to have been followed by the *History of Astronomy during the Seventeenth Century*, which was left in manuscript by the author, but is now printing at the expence of government. His last work was a translation, with learned notes, of the *Phænomena* of Aratus.—*Pingré* was a man of simple manners,—of mild and benevolent disposition,—and full of sentiments of liberal, tolerant, and refined piety. He was skilled in various languages, possessed extensive erudition, and passionately admired the classical authors. He also loved music, and in the latter period of his life was remarkably fond of botany. At the age of fourscore and four years, this venerable man, this patriarch of astronomy, disregarding the rigour of the season, punctually attended the meetings of the Institute. He suffered an illness of five days only, and retained to the last his calmness and presence of mind. He expired on the 11 Floréal, fourth year (30 April 1796).

In considering the *Memoirs* contained in this volume, it will be more perspicuous to depart from the order of their occurrence, and to adopt such arrangement as may correspond with the nature of the subjects on which they treat.

Of the Motions of the Cælestial Bodies on their Centres of Gravity. By M. LA PLACE.—It would be utterly impossible to give any distinct idea of a paper so condensed and abstruse as this, which displays all the resources of ingenuity, and all the nice refinements of the most profound analysis. It occupies 76 pages, and a subsequent part is reserved for the next volume. It exhibits a complete theory of the 20 rotatory motions, and of their periodical and secular variations. A remarkable equation of *condition* occurs, which is only a development of the equation with *partial differences*, on which the illustrious author had before grounded his theory of the figure of the planets. For the investigation of the motions of a body above its centre of gravity, M. LA PLACE employs the differential equations given by *Euler* in the third volume of his *Mechanics*. To integrate these, however, requires a discussion of extreme delicacy. The result of this investigation is, that, of the periodical changes in the axis of the Earth in respect to the plane of the ecliptic, the only sensible one is what depends on the longitude of the lunar nodes, and is termed *nutation*. There is, besides, a small inequality of about a second at its *maximum*, the argument of which is double the longitude of the Sun. Some astronomers have introduced a new equation dependant on the longitude of the lunar apogee, but which

M. LA PLACE is led by this analysis to reject. The secular variations of the terrestrial orbit, likewise, produce such as are corresponding, but more extended, in the position of the Earth's axis in regard to a fixed plane. The principal effect of this nutation is to contract the limits of the evagations of the obliquity of the ecliptic, and the length of the tropical year. It occasions also a small variation in the length of the day, but by far too minute to have any sensible effect on astronomical calculations.—Combining the formulas of the motion of the Earth's axis with the theory of the figure of that planet already given in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for 1782, it appears that the Earth is not homogeneous, and that its oblateness does not exceed the $\frac{1}{304}$ part of its diameter. The proportion $\frac{1}{313}$, which results from the measures of the pendulum, is perfectly consistent with the phenomena of precession and nutation.

New Determination of the Orbit of Mercury. By JÉRÔME LALANDE.—This delicate problem, rendered more arduous in the northern climates especially by the proximity of Mercury to the Sun, had for the space of forty years exercised the sagacity of the French Ptolomy:—but the rebellious planet still mocked his watchings, his researches, and his unwearied labours. At last, Fortune seems to have crowned him with success, and he exclaims with Virgil—

“ Respexit tamen, et longo post tempore venit.”

The result is, that the equation of the orbit of Mercury is $23^{\circ} 40' 45''$, and that the annual motion of the aphelion is $56'' 08$. The secular motion is $2^{\circ} 14' 4'' 10''$, and that of the aphelion $1^{\circ} 23' 18''$.

On the Place of the Node of Saturn's Ring in 1790. By HONORÉ FLAUGERGUES, Associated Member.—The longitude of the nodes of Saturn's Ring has not been satisfactorily ascertained by preceding astronomers. In the year 1789 and the beginning of 1790, M. Flaugergues had an opportunity of watching the appearances and disappearances of the ring at its descending node. The observations of these phases were made in his observatory at Viviers, in the Vivarrais, by means of a Gregorian reflector of 15 inches, with a magnifying power of 40. From a simple application of spherics, it follows that the position of the descending node of Saturn's Ring, in 1790, was $21^{\circ} 20' 52'' 59''$, differing only by $27'$ in excess from the determination of M. Lalande, obtained by similar observations at the same period. Comparing the deduction with that of Maraldi in 1714 and 1715, it follows that the node of the ring has a retrograde motion on the ecliptic, amounting to about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in the space of 175 years. This motion, altogether analogous

analogous to the precession of the equinoxes, is probably caused by the attractions of Saturn's satellites, and particularly the fifth.

Observations made at Viviers in the Department of the Ardèche.
By the same.—These consist of occultations of stars by the moon, of eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, of the solar spots, and of a double halo about the Sun.

[To be continued.]

In order to give variety to this article, suited to the difference of taste among our readers, we here suspend, for the present, our attention to this volume, and take up that which relates to

LITERATURE and the FINE ARTS.

This volume opens with notices of prizes for the year 6. The first subject is, *to examine the changes which the French language has undergone since Malherbe and Balzac, to the present time.* The second is, *to examine what has been, and may yet be the influence of painting on the manners and government of a free people.* The prize for each to be a gold medal, of the weight of five hectogrammes.

The first memoir relates to *several articles of the New Encyclopédie concerning the [grammatical] ellipsis, and the substitutes which are employed to express elliptic phrases; on complements and governing words; on the supine and participle; on qui, que, quoi, lequel; on qui est-ce, on qu'est-ce.* By DEWAILLY.—This paper is a kind of hypercriticism on opinions respecting some peculiarities of the French language, which have been advanced in the New Encyclopédie. It had been asserted that the particles *de* and *des* are extractive propositions; that, when we say, *des Savans soutiennent, des hommes m'ont dit, des* is not in the nominative; and, that when we say, *j'ai vu des hommes, j'ai vu des femmes, des* is not in the accusative case. The author before us proves the contrary, we think, with considerable ingenuity. The remarks are extended to great length, and to a minuteness which would not interest the English reader. The principal object, indeed, seems to be, to controvert the opinions of the Encyclopedist, and to repel his objections against M. DEWAILLY's publications.

Observations on the Pronoun Soi, by M. LEMONNIER.—This writer wishes to reverse the decree of the French Academy, by which *soi* was declared to be always impersonal; and he proves, by striking illustrations, as well as by examples drawn from some of the best French writers, that we may say, *Pierre n'aime que soi*, instead of the Academic phrase, *Pierre n'aime que lui.*

First Memoir on the Necessity of instructing the Deaf and Dumb, and on the primary Means of Communicating with them. By SICARD.—This benevolent attempt to restore a degraded class of human beings, to a tolerable place in society, is enforced with merit, eloquence, and effect. In this country, the arguments in its favour are not new, though its execution has never become a national object.

The mode of instruction is developed at full length. The principle consists in placing before the pupil an object, a key, a knife, a pencil, &c. and shewing him the application of it. The motions made in applying it soon become to him the sign of the object when it is not present. The forms of objects are afterward drawn on paper, and the pupil is taught their intent, by the teacher pointing first to the object and then to the drawing. The object is afterward removed, and he is instructed to demand it by touching the drawing.—This mode of instruction reminds us of Swift's proposal for conversing by *things*, instead of words.—The pupil is then progressively led, by the formation of general characters, corresponding to the particular figures, to a knowledge of the alphabet.

The acquaintance with numbers is commenced by repeating the name or sign of an object, as often as there are objects of the same kind before the pupil: *Chair*, for instance, is written as many times as there are chairs in the room.

Above all things, patience is recommended to the instructor, and he is enjoined that very necessary lesson, which would do great service in every kind of study, to *begin at the beginning*; and to take nothing for granted, as already known, but to consider his pupil as an unorganized machine to which he is to give motion and direction.

Examination of Harris's Hermes, as translated by Thurot. By the same.—On various occasions, we have had reason for observing that the French public are little acquainted with the present state of English literature: but we have before us, in this paper, a proof of deficiency in this respect, which is almost incredible. The French translator, and the French reporter on Harris's *Hermes*, have given a history of grammarians in which there is not a word said of the discoveries of Mr. Horne Tooke; nor is his work once mentioned. This is more astonishing, because the political seasoning of his book, which has proved too fiery for the stomachs of some readers at home, would have been keenly relished by a member of the National Institute. As this article, therefore, turns on opinions, most of which are now completely exploded, any farther observations would be useless on our part.

Memoir on the Grammatical Proposition. By URBAN DOMERGUE.—This paper also is defective, because the author is unacquainted

unacquainted with the production of our countryman. He divides the proposition into three parts, the *judicand*, the *judicator*, and the *judicat*. Thus, in the proposition, *the rose is brilliant*, *the rose* is the thing to be judged, the *judicand*; the verb *is* presents the means of judging and is the *judicator*; and the adjective *brilliant* is the *judicat*; *res judicata*.

We own that we do not see much advantage from this species of analysis, nor that it leads us nearer to the spring-head of grammar. The idea is pursued with much diffuseness, and great variety of illustrations.

Report on the Fragment of an ancient Monument sent to the National Institute by M. Achard, Keeper of the Museum of Marseilles.—This fragment contained the following inscription;

ΘΕΑ ΔΙΚΤΥΑ
ΔΗΜΟC ΜΑΣΣ

which is translated by the reporters, *the People of Marseilles to the Goddess Dictya*. The title Dictya is supposed to be an abbreviation of Dictynna, a Cretan title for Diana; and it is conjectured that the worship of this goddess was introduced at Marseilles by the Phocians.

Observations on Magic, by M. LE BLOND.—This writer seems to have been forcibly impressed by the hesitation of *La Bruyere*, on the subject of magic. It certainly was not a decided question in the age of *La Bruyere*, whether the pretences of magicians were well or ill-founded. Superstitions, which hold from the first principles of our nature, can never be fairly said to be displaced, even when they become unfashionable:—but we did not at first perceive to what purpose the author had retailed the old materials, scattered through so many well-known books, merely to shew the difference between natural magic and sorcery; a distinction which is admitted by every demonologist. After having quoted several passages, however, from Cicero, and Clemens Alexandrinus, M. LE BLOND presents us very abruptly with an application of his text to the thaumaturgists and evokers of Spirits, who have lately made so much noise on the Continent.

An Epistle against Celibacy. By M. DUCIS.—This poem is written on the model of Boileau, and contains some vigorous lines, notwithstanding the triteness of the subject. We have been particularly struck with the following:

‘*Des vieux garçons mourans, des vieux célibataires,
Les fripons, de tout temps, sont nés les legataires.*’

The description of a super-annuated bachelor is painted with correctness and precision:

‘*Aigri par l’impuissance, usé par la mollesse,
Mort avant le trépas, vieux avant la vieillesse,*

Dans

*Dans ton ame indigente appeler le plaisir,
De la nature avare implorer un desir?—*

The concluding phrase is remarkably happy.—

Another line seems almost copied from our own Gray's

“Moody madness, laughing wild
Amid severest woe:”

‘*Du Désespoir qui rit l’effroyable allégresse.*’

If this piece had been shorter, and more compressed, the author's poetical talents would have appeared to greater advantage.

Of an *Ode to Enthusiasm*, by M. LE BRUN, we cannot speak in such favourable terms. We have not remarked any disgusting fault, indeed, but neither have we discovered any felicity of expression, or strength of composition.

First Canto of a Poem, entitled the Vigil of Parnassus; by the same.—This canto comprehends the story of Orpheus and Eurydice, supposed to be related by the Muse Erato. This fiction, we presume, was intended to excuse the boldness of entering into competition with the author of the *Georgics*: but we fear that M. LE BRUN has not paid his court very adroitly at Parnassus; if this be a specimen of the powers of the Muse Erato, she certainly does not write poetry nearly so well as Virgil.

*The Process of the Senate of Capua, an Anecdote taken from Livy**, by M. ANDRIEUX, is told with liveliness: but the moral of the story, which implies that the Parisians should be contented with their government as it stood three years ago, is now a little obsolete.

The Hospital for Fools, a Persian Tale, (in Verse,) in Continuation of the Thousand and One Nights. By the same.—A well-conceived and well-told story. An Emir of Bagdad, on visiting a madhouse, has many representations made to him by persons confined in it, that they are detained there by the machinations of their enemies. To decide on their complaints, he appoints Safad, the physician, to examine them in his palace. A sudden tempest increases the fury of the lunatics to such a degree, that it is deemed unsafe to trust them out of confinement; and the Emir, on receiving this intelligence, as he is going to hold his levee, feeling himself exhausted by other employments, determines to send Safad to give audience in his palace. By some accident, Safad is not informed of this change of measures, and repairs to the palace in expectation of meeting only with lunatics. The courtiers present their petitions in turn, and are entered by the physician

* Decad. 3. lib. 23.

on the list of incurables.—There are evidently some strokes at the times and circumstances, as they were when this composition was read : among others

‘ *Un chanteur présentoit ses projets de finance ;
Un grave magistrat ses petits airs de danse.*’—

On repairing to drink sherbet with the Emir, Safad is astonished to see several of his supposed madmen admitted to the same honour. He is then undeceived, and the matter ends in a laugh. The moral is a little stronger, however, than the Stoical paradox. M. ANDRIEUX infers that all men are mad :

——‘ *Que chacun s’interroge,
Chacun reconnoitra qu’il a droit à sa loge ;
Un peu plus, un peu moins, nous extravaguons tous :
Qui se croit le plus sage est le plus grand des fous.*’

The author, indeed, might think himself justified in this conclusion, by limiting the application to the state of France at that period.—

The Miller of Sans Souci, an Anecdote, by the same. Frederic the Second is here introduced, with three notable qualifications, as

‘ *Grand Roi, bon Philosophe, et fort mauvais Chretien.*’

It would have been happy for Europe, however, if the greatness of the king had been tempered with a little Christian philosophy. The anecdote is, that Frederic wished to purchase a mill, which interfered with his projected improvements at Sans Souci ; that the proprietor refused to part with it, so obstinately, as to induce the monarch to intimate that he could take it by force ;—“ Yes, (replied the miller,) if we had not judges at Berlin.” The force of the reply struck the king, and he left his neighbour unmolested. There is no trusting however, to this kind of forbearance, as M. ANDRIEUX remarks, since the prince who respects a mill may steal a province.

Two fables by M. MONVEL, senior, are not of the first class ; yet the latter is rather above mediocrity.

Counsels of an old Man to young People. By LEMONNIER.—Though “ spoken in parables,” these counsels might have been omitted without any disadvantage to the present collection.

Memoir on the Study of the Antients. By M. BITAUBÉ. This paper has given rise to very serious reflections in our mind. If the study of the learned languages require such a defender in Paris, the axe of Robespierre has fallen heavier than could have been believed ; and the present generation must be enemies to every thing respectable in literature. This we cannot suppose ; and we therefore must make allowance for the well-meaning zeal of M. BITAUBÉ, when he speaks of the

revival

revival of letters in France ; and when he attributes such importance to the inconsiderate opinion of CONDORCET, that translations may supply the place of original writers.

In return for this great dread of the new doctrines in literature, M. BITAUBÉ has most faithfully attached himself to the old established common-places on his subject, and has dealt them out void of improvement. Yet, from one passage in this essay, one might be tempted to conclude that the French are a very learned people ; for he says, ‘ Shakespear often astonishes and enchants us, *but we read Sophocles more frequently.*’ It certainly is not so in this country. The pleasures attending an intimacy with the best Greek and Roman writers are so far beyond the view of the mere learner, that we doubt whether the representations of M. BITAUBÉ will much increase the number of scholars. He appears, however, to be himself well acquainted with the master-pieces which he recommends to attention.

Socrates at the School of a Theologist ; or Reflections on the Dialogue of Plato entitled Eutyphron. By the same. This short paper contains a supposition that, in the dialogue with Eutyphron, Socrates is made to introduce a general defence of his philosophy.

Considerations on the three Tragic Poets of Greece. By PIERRE-CHARLEY LÉVESQUE. We were almost converted to M. BITAUBÉ’s opinion of the low state of French literature, by the beginning of this paper ; which states at large many facts concerning the origin of Tragedy, which an author of this country would cursorily notice as generally known. As we proceeded, however, the prospect began to clear ; and we finished with the conviction that M. LÉVESQUE is a writer of taste and learning, though unnecessarily diffuse in some parts of his essay. We cannot be expected to follow him through details so familiar to literary men, but we shall notice some points on which there may be a difference of opinion.

In his character of Eschylus we think, the author has been misled by the exaggerated ridicule of Aristophanes, whose sarcasms cannot be regarded as a foundation for sober criticism. We expected that the judgment of Dionysius the Halicarnassian would have been cited : but he does not seem to be in M. LÉVESQUE’s list of authors. The French critic says that Eschylus could not excite pity ; that he could only terrify the spectator.—The Greek Censor, who certainly knew more of Eschylus, says that he knew the proper bounds of expressing the passions ; *καὶ ἦθ’ αὖ καὶ παθὼν τὸ πρέπον εἰδώς.*—As Eschylus was the first dramatist who aided the effect of his pieces by stage-machinery, we may allow something for the usual

usual exaggerations of the Greeks, in speaking of the terror and amazement which he excited.

Sophocles is this essayist's favourite : but it was unnecessary to be unjust to his predecessor, in order to exalt this charming poet. We have been particularly pleased with one part of M. LÉVESQUE's observations, and we shall translate the substance of them.

‘ The great object of the tragic theatre of the Greeks, which it is easy to recognize in the pieces of Sophocles, was to inspire men with fortitude against reverses of fortune, and with resignation to the decrees of fate. Sophocles and Euripides flourished during the time of the Peloponnesian war: they had witnessed the celebrated pestilence which wasted Attica; they had seen whole republics destroyed by fire and sword, the citizens carried off, loaded with irons, sold for slaves, or slain, drowned, or burned; and there was not a man in Greece who might not dread a similar fate. He who in affluence enjoyed the favours of fortune, and the charms of the arts, might in one day undergo the yoke of servitude: Greece had become a theatre of revolutions; every citizen might be made the victim of them; and tragedy inspired him with courage against the evils with which he was threatened. The terror excited by the exhibition of great vicissitudes, the pity extended to those who suffer by them, these are the sentiments which tragedy awakened, to soften them by habit; because, during unhappy times, these sentiments felt in all their force, are additional evils. Aristotle had therefore reason for saying that the Greek tragedy, by means of terror and pity, purged these feelings; that is, it deprived them of that excessive poignancy, by which they only aggravate the sufferings of humanity.’

The character of Euripides is well drawn, and displays much knowledge, not only of that author's works, but of the ancient drama in general.

The paper is closed with some general remarks on the chorus of the Greek tragedy. The author supposes that, as the chorus was not only the original representation, but a religious rite also, it continued to be necessarily imposed on dramatic writers, however ill suited to their views.

We find a note of some extent, relating to the *Epic Cycle*, or Collection of Epic Poems, which supplied the Greek dramatists with most of their subjects.

A Memoir relative to Aristophanes, by the same, is designed to vindicate the memory of this great writer against the attacks of some of his critics, and especially against the aspersions of *Voltaire*; who probably, as M. LÉVESQUE suggests, had never read Aristophanes in the original.

Nothing can be more unfounded than *Voltaire's* assertion, that Aristophanes was no poet; his choruses contain some of the sweetest and most elevated passages of which Grecian poetry

poetry can boast. The hymn to the Nightingale, in the comedy of the Birds, is alone sufficient to immortalize him, as a specimen of excellence in both kinds of composition.

M. LÉVESQUE has been very happy in pointing out the resemblance between the Greek comedian and Molière. It is not necessary, in order to account for this similitude, to resort to *Molière's* acquaintance with Aristophanes; they were men of similar genius; of easy wit; of exquisite humour; and correct in their delineation of ludicrous characters, placed in ridiculous circumstances. They were equally original, for they copied nature; and the analogy of their writings is equally flattering to each of their memories.

Memoir on the successive Improvements of Painting in Greece, by the same Author. This is a very learned and copious essay:—but as the materials from which it is drawn have been already worked by writers of this country, and as the remarks however ingenious and well expressed, contain little novelty, we shall give no abridgement of the author's observations.

As a specimen of the ingenuity of M. LÉVESQUE, we shall extract the following note, illustrative of a passage in Pliny:

* *Pinxit [Apelles] et quæ pingi non possunt, tonitrua, fulgura, fulgatra.* We read after this passage, *Brontem, Astrapen, Ceraunobolion appellant.* These words seem useless, and Pintianus believed that they had been added by some Greek transcriber: *Hæc verba Græculi alicujus potius quam Plinii puto.* I have no doubt that they are the words of Pliny; I do not believe them to be superfluous; and I think that they instruct us in a custom of the antients, which we know to exist among the modern amateurs. It often happens that a name is given to a celebrated picture, taken from some accidental image introduced in it, or from some circumstance which concerns it. Thus, a Holy Family by Andrea del Sarto, is called the *Madonna del Sacco*, because St. Joseph is represented in it seated on a sack:—a picture by Guido, which represents St. Benedict in the desert, is called *La Turbantina*; because a woman dressed with a kind of turban appears in it:—a print representing the disciples at Emmaüs, engraved after Titian by Masson, is called the *Print of the Table-Cloth*, (*estampe de la Nappe*,) because a table-cloth is very skillfully managed in it:—the portrait of the Marshal d'Harcourt is known under the name of *Cadet à la Perle*, because he wears a pearl in his ear:—and a print by Rembrandt is called the *Hundred Florin-Piece*, from the price which has been given for a single proof. In the same manner, the antients called a painting of Protogenes the *Woman and Mules*, (*Hemionida*) though it was supposed to represent Nausicaa, because this princess was painted on a car drawn by mules. Thus three pictures of Apelles had received names relative to their most striking effect, and those are the names which Pliny mentions: One was called *Βρονή*, another *Αστραπή*, and the third *Κεραυόβολια*. I believe that the latter was that which represented Alexander darting the thunder. Pliny, in mentioning that

that Lucullus gave two talents for a copy of the Flower Girl of Pausias, expresses himself thus: *Hujus tabula exemplar, quod Apographon vocant, L. Lucullus duobus talentis emit.* This phrase has been misunderstood as a dictionary-phrase; it means that this picture was called *The Copy*, by way of excellence. The high price given for it by Lucullus, joined to its beauty, merited this appellation.

Notice concerning a Passage in Simplicius, by SCHWEIGHÆUSER, jun. An omission of the copyist is here supplied by a tolerably fortunate conjecture: but the object is hardly important enough to justify its insertion in this volume.

New Researches respecting the Ships employed by the Antients, from the Origin of the Punic Wars to the Battle of Actium; and on the Use which might be made of them in our Marine. By DAVID LE ROY.—The object of the first memoir, on this much-contested inquiry, is to prove that the crow of Duillius might be used in the French privateers, instead of their bowsprits. We imagine that this proposal will not retrieve the glory of the French marine.

Memoirs on the public Works of the Romans, compared with those of the Moderns. By ANTONY MONGEZ.—The author accounts for the immense size of the Roman public buildings, from the great number of criminals condemned to work for life in the quarries, &c. From a comparison of the probable expence of supporting the condemned workmen, he supposes that the buildings of Nero and Diocletian cost less, by three-fourths, than those of modern times. We think that the deduction is rather hasty. He sketches, in a desultory manner, several other circumstances which tended to diminish the expenditure on those occasions; the employment of slaves, the accession of plunder, of contributions from the provinces, &c.—The principal part of the essay contains some curious remarks on particular processes used by the Romans in their cements.

Researches relative to the Colours of the Antients, and the Arts which relate to them. By M. AMEILHON.—This author, struck with the uncertainty of the meanings affixed to the Greek and Latin words denoting colours, attempts to ascertain them more accurately. For this purpose, he has collated those passages, in which authors have compared the colour, expressed by a Greek or Latin word, to the colour of some object which has been at all periods the same; to milk, or blood, for example.—Thus, the meaning of the word *κυανός* is ascertained, by finding that it is compared to the colour of the sky, which is *blue*. The signification of *luteus* is proved, in the same manner, by its being compared to the colour of saffron, or the yolk of an egg: this process shews that it means *yellow*. The memoir is clogged, however, with a heavy dissertation on the art of dying among

among the antients, in which the author proceeds no farther than the process of *fulling*. At this rate, he may fill the next volume of the Institute, without coming to his point.—We do not mean to deny the learning displayed in these preliminary inquiries: but we think that they would have been more properly employed in a separate treatise. At present, they only disappoint us of the information which the author had promised.

Dissertation on the true Portrait of Alexander the Great. By M. LE BLOND.—The object of this dissertation, which is written with much learning and ability, is to prove that the heads covered with the lion's skin, on some of Alexander's coins, which have passed among antiquaries for heads of the young Hercules, are really portraits of the Macedonian conqueror. The particular arguments, produced in favour of this opinion, could not be understood without the plates.

Observations on the Distribution and Classification of Books in a Library. By A. G. CAMUS.—The arrangement proposed by this author proceeds on the supposition that the student enters the library entirely ignorant. The basis of his project, therefore, is fallacious. Great libraries are, in fact, most useful to persons who are considerably advanced in knowledge; to whom, arrangement is a trifling object, and facility of access is every thing.

Memoir on the Completion of the Louvre, on the Enlargement of the National Museum of Painting and Sculpture, and on the Necessity of immediately forming a particular School of the Arts. By M. PEYRE.—We cannot be expected to give a competent opinion on the local details of this paper. The ideas seem great and comprehensive; and, with the models of perfection, in all kinds, which the French nation now possess, we may expect it to produce very superior artists.

We have now gone through the whole of the volume relative to LITERATURE and THE FINE ARTS. In a subsequent article, we shall resume our attention to the volume on the MATHEMATICAL and PHYSICAL SCIENCES, and pay our respects to that which is devoted to MORALITY and POLITICS.

[To be continued.]

ART. II. *Traité de Mécanique Céleste, &c. i. e.* A Treatise on Celestial Mechanics. By P. S. LA PLACE, Member of the National Institute of France, and of the Board of Longitude. 4to. 2 Vols. pp. 400 in each. Paris. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 2l. 2s.

IN the Appendix to our 29th volume, we gave an account of M. LA PLACE's work entitled "*Exposition du Système du Monde*."

Monde," and we then announced a great and important publication by the same author, which was soon to appear. The first part of that performance is now submitted to our examination. Its plan, its object, and the motive which induced the author to so laborious and useful an undertaking, cannot be more clearly and forcibly stated than in the words of his introduction:

'Towards the close of the last century, Newton published the discovery of universal gravitation. Since that period, geometricians have succeeded in reducing to this great law of nature all the known phenomena of the system of the world, and thus have given to theories and astronomical tables an unexpected precision. I purpose to offer, in one point of view, these theories which are scattered through a great number of works; and which, in their totality, embracing all the results of universal gravitation, on the equilibrium, and on the motions of solid bodies and fluids which compose the solar system, and similar systems diffused through the immensity of space, constitute 'Celestial Mechanics.' Astronomy, considered in the most general view, is a great problem of mechanics, in which the elements of the heavenly motions are the arbitrary quantities; its solution depends at once on the exactness of observations, and on the perfection of analysis; and it is of high importance to exclude all empiricism, and scrupulously to borrow from observations those data which are indispensable. To fulfil, to the greatest extent of my powers, an object so interesting, is the intention of the present work. In consideration of the importance and difficulty of the attempt, I hope that geometricians and astronomers will receive it with indulgence; and that they may find its results sufficiently simple to employ them in their researches. It will be divided into two parts. In the first, I shall give the methods and formulas necessary to determine the motion of the centres of gravity of heavenly bodies, the figure of these bodies, the oscillations of the fluids which cover them, and their motions round their proper centres of gravity. In the second part, I shall apply the formulas found in the first to the planets, satellites, and comets. I shall conclude it by an examination of the different questions relative to the system of the world, and by an historical notice of the labours of geometricians on this subject. I shall adopt the decimal division of the right angle and the day, and shall refer the linear measures to the length of the metre, determined by the arc of the terrestrial meridian comprised between Dunkirk and Barcelona.'

The first book treats on the general laws of *Equilibrium and Motion*, and the first chapter on the *Equilibrium and composition of Forces acting on a material Point*. The demonstration of the composition of forces given by *Varignon*, *Newton*, &c. was long ago shewn to be deficient in evidence and *rigor geometricus*, by *Daniel Bernoulli* and *D'Alembert*. The former published, in the Petersburg acts, a strict demonstration of the resolution of forces, in the particular case in which the forces are equal, and acting at right angles. He affirmed that, by the aid of this fundamental proposition, the resolution of forces might be demonstrated, whatever were the magnitude and

inclination of the forces. The proofs, however, are not strict and accurate, when the angle in which the forces are inclined to each other is incommensurable with a right angle. — M. D'Alembert, in his *Opuscles*, exhibited a stricter demonstration; and his fundamental proposition is the quiescence of a material point, acted-on by three equal forces inclined at 120 degrees. In a subsequent volume of the same work, however, he gave a more general demonstration by the aid of functions; and to this last demonstration of D'Alembert, the present one of M. LA PLACE is similar in principle and method. It necessarily consists of two parts; the first is to give the proper magnitude of the resulting force ($z^2 = x^2 + y^2$), independently of the angle of its inclination to one of the sides (x): the second is to determine the inclination to be that which the diagonal of a rectangular parallelogram makes with one of its sides.

As the position of a point depends on three rectangular co-ordinates, M. LA PLACE supposes the place of a body, the origin of forces, &c. to be determined by three co-ordinates, and every force to be resolved into three partial forces parallel to the axes of these co-ordinates. The first equation which he deduces is that for the equilibrium of a material point, acted on by any number of forces; the form of the equation is $O = \sum S \delta s$, which is the analytical translation of this proposition, that, when a point is in *equilibrio* solicited by any number of forces, the sum of the products of each force by the element of its direction is 0. If the point be on a curved surface, the equation becomes (calling R the re-action of the surface, and r the perpendicular to the surfaces drawn through the point M), $0 = \sum S \delta s + R. \delta r$.

Chapter II. *On the Motion of a material Point.*—The fundamental principles, on which the doctrine of motion rests, are contained in the laws of motion. The proof of the inertia of matter offered by M. LA PLACE is similar to that of D'Alembert, grounded on the principle known by the name of the sufficient reason. After having stated what gives rise to the idea of velocity, and defined it to be the ratio of the space uniformly described to the time of describing it, M. LA PLACE proceeds to examine a very important question in the doctrine of the motion of bodies moved in nature; namely, the proportionality of the force to the velocity. The judiciousness of his reasonings, and the perspicuity of his method, will justify us in giving an extract on this subject:

Force being known to us only by the space which it causes to be described in a determinate time, it is natural to take this space as its measure: but this supposes that several forces, acting in the same direction, cause a space to be described equal to the sum of the spaces

that each would cause to be described separately; or, which is the same thing, that the force is proportional to the velocity. This we cannot know *a priori*, because of our ignorance of the nature of the moving force: for information, then, on this subject, we are obliged to have recourse to experience; since every thing, which is not a necessary consequence of the small number of data that we have on the nature of things, can only be known to us as the result of observation.

Call v the velocity of the Earth, common to all bodies on its surface; let f be the force with which one of these bodies M is animated, by virtue of this velocity; let us suppose $v = f \cdot \phi(f)$ designates the relation existing between the velocity and force; $\phi(f)$ being a function of f , which it is necessary to determine by experience. Let a, b, c , be three partial forces, into which the force f is decomposed, parallel to three axes perpendicular to each other. Conceive, then, the moving body M solicited by a new force f' , which is decomposed into three others, a', b', c' , parallel to the same axes. The forces acting on the body in the direction of these axes will be $a+a', b+b', c+c'$; and calling F the only resulting force, we have

$$F = \sqrt{(a+a')^2 + (b+b')^2 + (c+c')^2}.$$

Call U the velocity corresponding to F ; $\frac{(a+a') \cdot U}{F}$ will be this velocity decomposed parallel to the axis a ; so that the relative velocity of the body on the Earth, parallel to this axis, will be $\frac{(a+a') \cdot U}{F} - \frac{a \cdot v}{f}$, or $(a+a') \cdot \phi(F) - a \cdot \phi(f)$. The most considerable

forces which can be impressed on bodies at the surface of the Earth, being very small in comparison of the forces which they receive by virtue of the Earth's motion, we may consider a', b', c' , as quantities infinitely small relatively to f ; we have, then,

$$F = f + \frac{aa' + bb' + cc'}{f} \text{ and } \phi(F) = \phi(f) + \frac{(aa' + bb' + cc')}{f} \cdot \phi'(f);$$

$\phi'(f)$ being the differential of $\phi(f)$ divided by df . The relative velocity of M , according to the axis of a , will thus become

$$a' \cdot \phi(f) + \frac{a}{f} \{ aa' + bb' + cc' \} \cdot \phi'(f)$$

and similar will become the expressions for the relative velocities according to the axis of b and c . The position of the axis of a , of b , and of c , being arbitrary, we may take the direction of the impressed force for the axis of a , and then a', b' will be nothing; the preceding relative velocities will be changed into these,

$$a' \left\{ \phi(f) + \frac{a^2}{f} \cdot \phi'(f) \right\}; \frac{ab}{f} \cdot a' \cdot \phi'(f); \frac{ac}{f} \cdot a' \cdot \phi'(f)$$

If $\phi'(f)$ be not nothing, the body, by virtue of the impressed force a' , will have a relative velocity perpendicular to the direction of this force, provided that b and c be not evanescent; that is to say, provided that the direction of this force does not coincide with that of the Earth's motion. Thus, conceiving a globe at rest on a very smooth horizontal plane, to be struck by the base of a right cylinder,

tended to incommensurable bodies, by the introduction of a proposition built on the method *reductio ad absurdum*. The method of M. LA PLACE is not essentially different from that of *D'Alembert*. His first proposition is to investigate the relation between the velocities u and u' , pertaining to two systems of material points m and m' , in the same right line, but moving in directly contrary directions: this relation is expressed by the equation $mu = m'u'$. This proposition is made to include all bodies; all bodies are therefore supposed to be commensurable, or (according to the author's expression) to consist of an assignable number of similar material points; similar material points being those which, meeting with equal and contrary velocities, produce a mutual equilibrium.

After the conditions of the equilibrium of two systems of bodies are stated, the equation of the equilibrium is deduced; whence results the famous principle of virtual velocities invented by M. LAGRANGE, and applied by him in his *Nouvelle Mécanique*.—The case next considered is that in which the points of a system are invariably united together; the conditions of their equilibrium are given; the centre of gravity is investigated, &c.

In the course of this chapter, is deduced the equation $\Sigma.mv^2 = c + 2\phi$; which is the analytical translation of the principle of the conservation of *forces vives*. As this principle does not subsist in the case of a sudden variation of the motions of the system, M. LA PLACE gives a method of estimating the alteration which the *force vive* undergoes. The principle of the conservation of the motion of the centre of gravity, of areas, is demonstrated; each of which subsists in the sudden change of the system:—next, the system of co-ordinates, in which the sum of the areas described by the projection of the *radii vectores* is nothing, on two rectangular planes formed by the axes of these co-ordinates. This sum is a maximum on the third rectangular plane, and nothing on every other plane perpendicular to this.

At the conclusion of the chapter, it is shewn that $\Sigma.fmvds$ is a minimum. In this equation, is involved the principle of the least action discovered by *Maupertuis*, and treated by that author on metaphysical considerations; although the principle is merely a mathematical result of the primordial laws of the equilibrium and motion of matter.

In Chap. IV. are given the general Equations of the Equilibrium of Fluids.

Chap. V. On the general Principles of the Motion of a System of Bodies.—The laws of the motion of a point are reduced to those of equilibrium, by decomposing its instantaneous motions into two others; one of which subsists, and the other is destroyed by the forces soliciting this point. The equilibrium between

between these forces and the motion lost by the body gives the differential equation of its motion,—A like method may be used to determine the motion of a system of bodies $m, m', m'', \&c.$ If mP, mQ, mR , be the forces soliciting m , parallel to the axis of its rectangular co-ordinates, x, y, z , and $m'P', m'Q', m'R'$, $\&c.$ forces soliciting $m', \&c.$ —and $\delta x, \delta y, \delta z$, the variations of the directions of the forces, the equations will be of this form :

$$0 = m. \delta x \left\{ \frac{d\delta x}{dt} - P \right\} + m. \delta y \left\{ \frac{d\delta y}{dt} - Q \right\} + \&c.$$

Chap. VI. *On the Laws of Motion of a System of Bodies, in all relations mathematically possible between the Force and Velocity.*

M. LA PLACE observes that there are an infinite number of ways of expressing the force by the velocity, which imply no contradiction. The most simple of all is that of the force proportional to the velocity, and observation proves it to be the law of nature. Agreeably to this law, the differential equations of the motion of a system of bodies have been determined : but the analysis employed relates to all laws mathematically possible between the force and velocity. The author designates this relation between the velocity and force, by the equation $F = \phi(v)$, $\phi(v)$ representing any function of the velocity.

This hypothesis renders the solution of the problems extremely difficult: but from the equations may be deduced principles analogous to those of the conservation of the *forces vives*, of areas, of the centre of gravity, $\&c.$ The conservation of the *forces vives* has place in all laws mathematically possible between the force and velocity; understanding, by the *force vive* of a body, the product of its mass by the double of the integral of its velocity, multiplied by the differential of the function of the velocity which expresses the force;—and the principle of the least action has place, when it means that the sum of the integrals of the finite forces of the bodies of a system, respectively multiplied by the elements of their direction, is a minimum.

Chapter VII. *On the Motions of a solid Body, of any figure whatever.*—Here we find the equations for the motions of the translation and rotation of a body; the principal axes of a body; its instantaneous axis of rotation; the oscillations of a body vibrating about one of its principal axes; the state of stability for a system of bodies; or such a state that the system deranged from it, by an infinitely small quantity, only varies from it by an infinitely small quantity, making continual oscillations about this state.

Chapter VIII. On the Motions of Fluids.—As the laws of the motion of a system of bodies were deduced from those of its equilibrium, so the laws of the motions of fluids are made to depend from those of their equilibrium. M. LA PLACE deduces the equations of their motions, transforms them, and shows that they are integrable when, the density being any function of the pressure, the sum of the velocities parallel to three rectangular axes, multiplied each by the element of its direction, is an exact variation. He then applies his principles to the motion of a fluid homogenous mass, having an uniform motion of rotation round one of the axes of its co-ordinates; to the determination of the very small oscillations of a fluid homogeneous mass, covering a spheroid that has a motion of rotation; to the motion of the Sea, supposing it deranged from a state of equilibrium by the action of very small forces; to the oscillation of the Earth's atmosphere in a state of motion, regarding only the regular causes that agitate it; and to the variations which these motions produce in the heights of the barometer.

Book II. On the Law of universal Gravitation, and on the Motion of the Centres of Gravity of Heavenly Bodies.

In his *Exposition du Système du Monde*, M. LA PLACE stated that, in order to arrive at the comprehensive view which is now formed of the system of the World, it was necessary to observe, during a great number of ages, the phenomena of the heavens; to recognize the real motions of the Earth; to ascend to the laws of the planetary motions, and from these laws to the principle of universal gravitation; and finally to descend from these laws to the complete explication of all the heavenly phenomena, even in their minutest details. To descend from the law of gravitation to the calculation of the phenomena, is the business of physical astronomy; of which Newton is the father. Its appearance caused a most memorable epoch in the history of science.

The first book of the *Principia*, it is known, is conversant in the solution of geometrical and mechanical problems; and in the third book, application is made of these problems to the system of the world. Newton, in his 2d section, proves that, if equal areas in equal times be described by a body round a fixed point, the body is urged by a force tending towards that point: but *Kepler*, by observation, found that the planets described equal areas round the Sun: the planets, therefore, were urged by forces tending towards the Sun. Again, Newton proved (3d section) that a body, moving in an ellipse round a force in the focus, was urged by a force of which the law of variation was the inverse square of the distance: but *Kepler* had observed that

that the planets moved in ellipses having the Sun in one of the foci: the law, therefore, of the force which urged the planets was the inverse square of the distance *.

The first two problems of this chapter, solved by M. LA PLACE, are the same as the two of Newton above mentioned: but the solution is by a different method; less simple, perhaps, in this particular case, yet to be preferred on account of its connexion with the methods previously used by the author in the preceding parts of his volume. In a systematic work, no demonstrations ought to be admitted but such as are dependent from previously established principles, and connected with preceding methods; though independent propositions often present themselves, allure with a specious facility, and tempt the author to depart from the plain and direct road, in the hope of finding a bye-path to truth. In general, the facility and conciseness of such demonstrations, if thoroughly examined, are illusive: but, were such qualities real, they must be sternly sacrificed, for the sake of unity and systematic regularity.

According to the method of M. LA PLACE, the position of a body moving in a curve of simple curvature is determined by two rectangular co-ordinates. Let x and y be two co-ordinates, which have their origin at the centre of force; let P and Q be two forces acting on a body, and parallel to the axis of x and y ; then the differential equations of the body's motion are

$$0 = \frac{ddx}{dt^2} + P$$

$$0 = \frac{ddy}{dt^2} + Q$$

whence this equation:

$$0 = \frac{d.(x dy - y dx)}{dt^2} + x.Q - y.P :$$

but, according to the first law of Kepler,

$$x dy - y dx = c dt \quad (c \text{ a constant quantity})$$

$$\therefore x.Q - y.P = 0$$

$$\text{or, } P.Q :: x : y ;$$

therefore, the resulting force of P and Q passes through the origin of the co-ordinates, or through the Sun.

To discover the law of the resulting force, let the resulting force $= \phi$, let ψ = angle formed by x , and a radius (r) drawn from the Sun to the planet; then $P = \phi \cos. \psi$, $Q = \phi \sin. \psi$:

* The law of gravitation cannot, however, be admitted as demonstrated on such simple reasoning as this: not but that the reasoning is exact, granting the premises.

from

from which equations, and those preceding, an expression for ϕ may be deduced in terms of r , v , and other constant quantities; but, from the second law of *Kepler*, the orbits are ellipses; from the equation to an ellipse, find the value of r , substitute it in the equation for ϕ , and the value of ϕ will appear to be $\frac{b}{r^2}$, b being a constant co-efficient.

M. LA PLACE next shews the method of ascertaining the law of gravitation, according to which the satellites of Jupiter, Saturn, and Uranus are attracted towards their primaries; also the method of ascertaining the law of the Moon's tendency to the earth. These methods do not differ in their principle from those given by Newton in his *Principia*: but they possess the advantage of being fully developed, and of being detailed with perspicuity and exactness. The arguments for the universality of gravitation; and its law, are stated by the author with great clearness, precision, and force.

“ The Sun, and the planets which have satellites, are consequently endowed with an attractive force; which, decreasing to infinity, reciprocally proportional to the squares of distances, embraces all bodies within the sphere of its activity. Analogy leads us to suppose that a like force resides universally in all the planets and comets: but we may be directly assured of this truth thus. It is a constant law of nature, that a body cannot act on another without experiencing an equal and contrary re-action; thus, the planets and comets being attracted towards the Sun, they ought, according to the same law, to attract this star. For the same reason, satellites attract their planets; this attracting property is common then to planets, to comets, and to satellites, and consequently the mutual gravitation of heavenly bodies may be regarded as a general property of the universe.

“ We have just seen that gravitation follows the ratio of the inverse square of distances; in truth, this ratio is given by the laws of the elliptic motion, to which the heavenly motions are not rigorously subjected: but we must consider that the most simple laws are always to be preferred, until observation compels us to abandon them. It is natural to suppose, at first, that the law of gravitation is according to a reciprocal power of the distance; and we find, by calculation, that the slightest difference between this power and the square would become extremely sensible in the position of the perihelia of planetary orbits, where observation scarcely discovers certain motions almost insensible, of which we shall develop the cause. In general, we shall see, in the course of this work, that the law of gravitation, according to the inverse square of the distances, represents with extreme precision all the inequalities observable in the heavenly motions; this agreement, joined to the simplicity of this law, authorizes us in the supposition that it is rigorously the law of nature.

“ Gravitation

Gravitation is proportional to the masses; for it results from No. 3, that the planets and comets, being supposed at the same distance from the Sun, and abandoned to their tendency towards this star, would fall through an equal height in equal times; so that their gravity would be proportional to their masses. The nearly circular motions of satellites round their planets proved that they gravitate, as these planets, towards the Sun, in the ratio of their masses; the slightest difference in this respect would be sensible in the motion of the satellites; and observation discovers no inequality dependent on this cause. We perceive, then, that comets, planets, and their satellites, placed at the same distance from the Sun, would gravitate towards this star in proportion to their masses; whence it follows, by virtue of the equality of action and re-action, that they would attract the Sun in the same proportion; and that thus their action on this star is proportional to their masses, divided by the square of their distances from his centre.

The same law is observed on the Earth. We are assured by the most precise experiments, made by means of the pendulum, that, without the resistance of the air, all bodies would be precipitated towards its centre with an equal velocity; terrestrial bodies, then, gravitate on the Earth, in the ratio of their masses; as planets gravitate towards the Sun, and satellites towards their planets. This conformity and consistency of nature on the Earth, and in the immensity of the heavens, demonstrate to us, in the most striking manner, that the gravity observed here below is only a particular case of the general law which pervades the universe.

The attractive property of celestial bodies is not peculiar to them only while they exist in masses; it belongs to each of their individual particles. If the Sun acted only on the centre of the Earth without particularly attracting each of its parts, there would result, in the ocean, oscillations incomparably greater than and very different from the oscillations now observed there. The gravitation of the Earth towards the Sun is, then, the result of the gravitation of all its particles; which, by consequence, attract the Sun in the ratio of their respective masses.—Moreover, each body on the earth gravitates towards its centre, proportionally to its mass;—it re-acts, then, on the Earth, and attracts it according to the same proportion. If this were not the case, and if any part whatever of the Earth, however small we suppose it, did not attract another part, as itself was attracted; the centre of gravity of the Earth would move in space, by virtue of its gravity; which is impossible.

The heavenly phenomena, compared with the laws of motion, conduct us then to this grand principle of nature; that all the particles of matter mutually attract in the ratio of their masses, and the inverse ratio of the square of their distances. Already, in this universal gravitation, we have a glimpse of the cause of the perturbations which the heavenly bodies experience; since the planets and comets, being subjected to their reciprocal action, must necessarily deviate a little from the laws of elliptic motion, which they would follow exactly if they obeyed only the action of the Sun. The satellites disturbed in their motions round their planets, by their mutual attraction and by that of the Sun, ought in like manner to deviate from them

these laws. We perceive, moreover, that the particles of each celestial body, re-united by their attraction, ought to form a mass nearly spherical; and that the result of their action, at the surface of bodies, ought there to produce all the phenomena of gravitation. In like manner, we perceive that the motion of rotation of heavenly bodies must necessarily alter in a small degree their spherical figure, and flatten at the poles; and that then the result of their mutual actions, not passing exactly through their centres of gravity, would produce, in their axis of rotation, motions similar to those discovered by observation.—Finally, we discern that the particles of the ocean, unequally attracted by the Sun and Moon, ought to have an oscillatory motion similar to the flux and re-flux of the sea.—The development of these various effects of universal gravitation requires the most profound analysis. To embrace them in all their generality, we proceed to give the differential equations of the motion of a system of bodies, under the influence of their mutual attraction; and to investigate the rigorous integrals which can thence be obtained. We shall in course avail ourselves of the advantages in point of facility, which the ratios of the masses and distances of heavenly bodies offer to us; in order so to deduce the integrals more and more nearly, and so to determine the celestial phenomena, with all the exactness which observations require.*

Chapter II. *On the differential Equations of the Motion of a System of Bodies subjected to their mutual Attraction.*—The form of these differential equations is $m \cdot \frac{ddx}{dt^2} - \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \right)$, the complete integration of which cannot be obtained, except in the case of the system consisting of two bodies only. When the system is composed of more than two bodies, the analysis must have recourse to the methods of approximation.

The subject next treated is the attraction of spheroids; and conclusions the same as those of Newton (sect. 12.) are obtained, though by different methods; viz. that, in the law of nature, a particle within a spherical superficies is at rest, and that spherical superficies and spheres attract in the same manner as if their masses were united at their centres. M. LA PLACE investigates, generally, under what laws of attraction the two curious circumstances just mentioned can take place; a problem which M. D'Alembert solved in his *Opuscules*. It appears from the investigation, that all the laws of attraction, in which a sphere acts on an exterior point placed at the distance r from its centre, are comprehended under this formula: $Ar + \frac{B}{r^2}$; if

$A=0$, the expression becomes $\frac{B}{r^2}$, the law of nature*: whence

* For, if r be made infinitely great, $Ar + \frac{B}{r^2}$ becomes infinitely great; except $A=0$.

it appears that, in the infinite number of laws which render the attraction very small at great distances, the law of nature is the only one in which spheres have the property of acting in the same manner as if their masses were united at their centres.

Chapter III. *First Approximation of the Heavenly Motions, or the Theory of the Elliptical Motion.*—In this chapter, are given the integration of the differential equations which determine the relative motion of two bodies mutually attracting each other; the curve described is proved to be a conic section, and the time is expressed by means of a converging series. Also are deduced the finite equations of the elliptical motions, expressions of the mean anomaly, radius vector, and true anomaly, in functions of the excentric anomaly; and a general method for the reductions of functions into series, &c.

M. LA PLACE shews that the law of *Kepler*, viz. that the squares of the periodic times are as the cubes of the axes, is not rigorous, and only obtains in as much as the mutual action of the planets, and their action on the Sun, are neglected.

Chapter IV. *Determination of the Elements of the Elliptical Motion.*—Newton has shewn, in the 17th proposition of his *Principia*, that, if the velocity of projection of the heavenly bodies be given, the elements of their orbits may easily be determined. This M. LA PLACE demonstrates conformably to his preceding methods; if V be the velocity of the revolving body, U the velocity in a circle, radius=1, then $P^2=U^2$

$\left\{ \frac{2}{r} - \frac{1}{a} \right\}$; which equation gives the semi-axis major a , by means of the body's primitive motion, and primitive distance from the body round which it revolves.

The principal part of this chapter is occupied with the theory of Comets. The author observes that the preceding formulas, for determining the elements of the planets' orbits, cannot be applied, since observation does not make known the circumstances of their primitive motion: but that the elements of their orbits may be determined by means of their oppositions and conjunctions, and easily, since the excentricity of the orbits and their inclination to the ecliptic are very small. Besides, the planets may be continually observed; and, by the comparison of a great number of observations, the elements of their orbits may be corrected. The case is widely different respecting Comets; which can only be observed towards their perihelion; and which, returning after a long succession of ages, cannot be recognized with any certainty. To determine the elements of their orbits by the observations of the appearance of a comet, is beyond the reach and powers of analysis; we must have recourse to the methods of approximation to determine the

the first elements of their orbits, and then to subsequent corrections.

M. LA PLACE then states what he deems the best method of determining the elements of the orbits of Comets, and proceeds to the detail of their determination.

Chapter V. *General Methods for determining, by successive Approximations, the Motions of the Heavenly Bodies.*

Chapter VI. *Second Approximation of the Heavenly Motions, or the Theory of their Perturbations.*

Chapter VII. *On the secular Inequalities of the Heavenly Motions.*—The theory of these inequalities is one of the most interesting points in the System of the World. Misunderstood for a while during the time of Euler, D'Alembert, and Clairaut, it made the beautiful structure of the Newtonian Philosophy to totter. Even the most deliberate mathematicians began to think that the system of the immortal Newton, instead of being the sturdy and genuine offspring of truth, was only one of those many specious and unreal creations of fancy, which Time is perpetually destroying; or which it suffers only to remain as the monuments at once of the strength and the weakness of the human mind.

Chapter VIII. *Second Approximation of the Heavenly Motions.*—

—“*Nos immensum confecimus æquor.*”

We here, for the present, close our account of this work, not reluctantly; more desirous, however, of recruiting a weariness which is the consequence of mental exertion, than of relieving a lassitude caused by objects which are deficient in variety or interest. For the exercise of that species of criticism, the office of which is the detection of errors and the suggestion of improvements, we have here found little opportunity, and felt less inclination. From those who are acquainted with the genius and acquirements of the author of the present work, and who are sensible of the intricacy and abstruseness of its subject, we need fear no reprehension when we confess that we approached it with deference and mental submission, such as stilled all the petulant suggestions of vain and minute criticism. In the perusal and meditation of the volumes, we have endeavoured to preserve the freedom, promptitude, and activity of our minds, rather to apprehend truth than to detect error. Unwilling to fill and disgrace the seat of criticism with affected dignity and specious learning, we have been contented to descend from it, and to follow the footsteps of a master; consequently, we have sometimes found ourselves entangled and bewildered in the intricacies of a subtle analysis. Yet this mode is surely more becoming and politic, than it would have been, in general and ambiguous terms, with the affectation of perspicacity

spicacity and profound judgment, to have slipantly complained of obscure principles, unmethodical arrangement, illogical inferences, and inconsequent conclusions. It would not have been difficult to have done this; for, such is the subtle, pliant, and accommodating nature of words, that from their texture may be made either a cloak for ignorance, or a garb to resemble that of real wisdom. Let it be the praise of the severe sciences, that, if under their rigorous discipline, as some maintain whom the world reputes wise, the mind is rendered callous to the beauties of works of taste and sentiment, yet its vanity and self-deception are powerfully restrained*. The philosopher, acquiring truth slowly and sparingly, after long and patient meditation, learns to form a just and measureable standard of his acquirements; and when, as it frequently happens after long research, he finds himself ignorant of what he hoped and expected to know, he will not feel much disposition to labour at deceiving others.

In a future Number, we shall examine the contents of the second volume, take a retrospect of the whole work, distinguish what parts of it belong to M. LA PLACE as original inventor, and conclude with a few observations on the rise and growth of physical astronomy.

[To be continued.]

ART. III. *L'Inde en rapport avec l'Europe; &c. i. e. India, as connected with Europe; a Work divided into two Parts; the first treating on the Political Interests of India; the second, on the Commerce of that Country. Containing Views useful to all Nations who have Colonies, particularly in Africa, Asia, or the East Indies; presenting a detailed, exact, and frightful Picture of English Machiavelism in this last Country; and offering to the French Government, and to Commerce, a certain Resource in the Re-establishment, maturely considered, and so much feared by our Rivals, of a Sovereign East India Company, with exclusive Privilege. By ANQUETIL DUPERRON, Traveller to the East Indies, Member of the former Academy of Inscriptions, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1798. London, Dulau and Co. Price 12s.*

THE author of these volumes, who long enjoyed the office of Oriental Interpreter to the King of France, had the merit of undertaking a voyage to India, in his earliest youth, solely with the view of recovering the writings of Zaratusth. After his return, he published his discoveries, under the title of *Zendavesta* †; a work which provoked a multitude of learned and pointed criticisms. His "*Legislation Orientale* ‡" appeared

* M. Condillac justly observes that a philosopher is neither vain nor modest.

† See M. Rev. vol. xlv. p. 561. ‡ See M. Rev. vol. lxi. p. 553.

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in 1778, and has frequently been quoted as authority by subsequent writers. A Latin, Hinduvi, and French Dictionary was also corrected by him at the desire of the papal court. In 1788, he completed his "*Récherches Historiques et Géographiques sur l'Inde*;" and in 1789 he published an essay entitled, "*La Dignité du Commerce*," which comprized the substance of the performance now before us.

The interesting labors of this indefatigable Orientalist are not yet concluded: at the advanced age of 70, he is now engaged in printing at Strasburgh a work in two volumes, which (he assures us) will explain the antient and mysterious doctrines of the Hindus. 'These only remains,' he says, 'in order completely to fulfil my promise, to give to the public a dictionary of the Hinduvi, Malabar, Telinga, and Sanscrit languages, together with a Sanscrit Grammar; all of which are now among my papers, and only require arrangement.' Sir W. Jones said that M. ANQUETIL most certainly had no knowledge of Sanscrit; be that as it may, the public will soon be in possession of his Sanscrit dictionary.

It affords us a pure and sincere gratification when we again behold, on our lists, the names of those respectable writers whose productions enlightened and embellished the fallen monarchy of France; we consider them as old and estimable acquaintances, who have survived a most perilous shipwreck. M. ANQUETIL has in this respect been more fortunate than his more eminent countrymen, *Bailli* and *Louisier*: but we should have learnt with unmixed concern the ruined state of his fortune, had the work before us not been presented as a national gift towards accomplishing the invasion of this country.

'The soldier speaks only of warlike expeditions; the agent and the merchant enter into the details of manufactures, of cargoes, and of ships; the minister relates political events, and presents statements of finance and revenue. "India, as connected with Europe," without treating particularly of any of them, comprehends them all, by presenting facts, giving notions, and suggesting ideas connected with these subjects; and by pointing out the method of treating, under every circumstance, with the Moors, the Mahrattas, the Malabars, and the Bengalese; and of forming with those nations solid connections, sanctioned by equity and humanity, and advantageous to both parties.'

Such is the design of this performance; which was sent by its author for publication to Neufchatel, in 1782, but was recalled by order of the minister, *M. de Vergennes*, lest the English should avail themselves of the information which it contained, to correct the imperfections of their Indian system. Since the period of its first composition, something has been added:

added: but it is not always easy to discriminate those observations which apply to remote facts, from allusions to such as are more recent. The time of its publication corresponds with that of General Bonaparte's embarkation, on an expedition destined ultimately against our Oriental dominions; was M. ANQUETIL consulted by the French Directory on this occasion? Were his views intended to guide the General after his arrival in India?—Though the materials were so long collected, the work bears evident marks of being published precipitately, in its want of cohesion; and the observations are seldom applicable to the present state of Indian politics. Apparently, however, the author writes much at his ease, and with great confidence; and he declaims with energy against the fatal spirit of revolutionary enthusiasm, which, in 1790, annihilated the exclusive privilege of the East India Company of France. Alas! what has it not annihilated?

Introduction.—The facility which attended the establishment of colonies in America, and the rapid progress of population and agriculture which succeeded, are easily explained from the particular situation of that extensive and fertile, but thinly peopled country. They afford no analogy applicable to the conduct of such enterprizes in Hindustan, where every circumstance is dissimilar: the length of the voyage; the accidents to which it is exposed; the necessity of possessing an intermediate station; the pre-occupation of all the lands by a numerous, warlike, and highly civilized people; and the necessity of continual importations to maintain the European population; constitute only a few of the particulars, which render the colonial system of the new world inapplicable to settlements in Hindustan. To adopt a system purely commercial, like that of the Dutch, were to expose the factories a defenceless prey to any power, native or European, which might attack them: if purely military, like that of the French under M. Dupleix, the expences become enormous, and the company bankrupts:—the English have attempted to unite both systems: but, in this writer's opinion, their conquests must ultimately prove the destruction of their commerce, and the extinction of that nation in India. 'The first enterprizing chief, Moor or Hindu, reanimating in Bengal those hopes which a long tyranny has not been able to extinguish, will consummate the revolution.'

Chap. 1. *Political Interests of India.*—The contents of this chapter will appear to have little correspondence with its title. The distant productions of nature and art, when first introduced into a country, are considered by the natives as objects of curiosity: but they soon become familiar, and after-

ward necessary. This has been the cause of wars among barbarous nations, unable to procure these newly discovered luxuries by purchase or barter; this has excited emigrations; this caused the irruption of the barbarians into the Roman empire; and finally, this prompted the invasion of Hindustan by the nations of Europe. Before the arrival of the Europeans, the quantity of gold, and particularly of silver, in that country, being comparatively inconsiderable, the necessaries of life were procured by the natives at a low price, and the revenue of the state was proportioned to the quantity of circulating medium. An inland trade, however, was carried to a great extent; and their manufactures were exported by sea to Ormus, Jedda, Moca, Achin, Siam, and China; the returns of which were remitted partly in the precious metals. This influx bore little proportion to that which succeeded the arrival of the Europeans, and which has continued with little interruption ever since; the price of commodities, taxes, and luxury, increased with the increase of specie; and this progression, which has subsisted above two centuries, cannot now be interrupted without being productive of serious inconveniencies. This fatal interruption, however, (says the author,) has been accomplished by the English; who, after having taken possession of an extensive and fertile territory, seize on the articles for which they have occasion under the name of tribute, at a rate fixed by themselves; the remaining revenue suffices for every charge, and consequently supersedes the necessity of importing specie; the fortunes of individuals, sent forth like an army of insects to devour the grass when it appears above ground, are exported from India, never to return; and lastly, by pre-occupying the market, they have excluded the traders of the circumjacent countries. Thus, the manufactures of Bengal are exported without an equivalent, and the door is shut against any influx from another quarter. The right of property constitutes the security of man united in society. The Indians possess this right to the riches which their country produces; and, stimulated by the increasing scarcity of specie, they will not long suffer it to be invaded with impunity.

On this statement, we shall only remark that M. ANQUETIL is deceived in supposing that the English Company demand manufactures as tribute; their investments are bought, and payment for them is made, with more regularity than those of private merchants. The necessity of importing specie is, indeed, obviated by the revenues of their territorial possessions. This obstacle to the progressive increase in the quantity of the signs of wealth is not, however, productive of any positive diminution; and after all, how far their abundance furnishes a

means, or an indication, of national prosperity and happiness, is a problem which still remains to be solved.—From these observations, our readers must not imagine that we propose to combat all the reflections, injurious to our countrymen in India, which M. ANQUETIL has thought fit to advance; the task would be too laborious: we must return to our analysis.

2. *Political Interests of the People and Princes of India, with regard to each other, and to the European Settlements in that Country.*

—States, in their connections with each other, must be regarded as individuals; they have their distinct characters: but the *fides Punica* is common to all commercial nations. The Hindus are separated from the Mahomedans by their religion, but still more by their personal interests; they consider the latter as intruders, and still cherish the hope of expelling them finally from Hindustan. These pretensions are advanced particularly by the Mahrattas: whose uniform policy is to reduce the Mahomedan power in India; to prevent the irruptions of the Afghans; and even to encourage the settlement of Europeans, in order to enrich themselves with their spoils, and to furnish an additional check to the aggrandizement of their opponents. Besides, these settlements supply the Mahrattas with arms, engineers, and gold. The empire of Delhi can only be restored by an army from Persia, or Tartary; while the Emperor attaches himself to the Patans or Mahrattas, he will experience only a series of disappointments; and the perfidy of the English, on whose assistance he relied to mount the throne of his ancestors, was such as to oblige him to take flight, — too happy to escape from their hands*. All the inferior states, which have risen on the ruins of the Mogul empire, have an interest in cultivating the alliance of Europeans, to protect them against the dangerous neighbourhood of the Mahrattas, and of Tippu. The Patans (by this appellation, the author understands the subjects of Zuman Shah Abdalli) never lose sight of the throne of Delhi; and in their ostensible design of assisting the Emperor, they really intend to gain a footing in his dominions.

* That portion of their territory, which comprehends the western provinces of Multan and Sind, would be enriched by the commerce of Europe; which would supply the Afghans with military succours, fire-arms, gold and silver, against the Persians and Tartars; and, furnishing an outlet for the produce of their mountains, would augment their agriculture, population, and industry. It is certain that,

* In our account of Captain Francklin's history of this Prince, our readers will find a narrative of this transaction, thus singularly distorted by the present author. See M. Rev. vol. xxvii. N. S. p. 86.

if (instead of devouring ourselves alive, and preparing for our posterity, by the struggles of an anarchy worse than despotism, a tempestuous futurity which France did not merit,) we had turned our attention towards romantic enterprizes, a body of 6000 French, disembarked at the mouth of the Indus, with a good provision of light artillery, in an army of Patans commanded by such a chief as Abdalli, might have achieved the conquest of the North of India. I say of the north, because their arms will never penetrate into the Peninsula.'

Hindustan has been invaded by the Turanians and by the Iranians; by Darius, son of Hystaspes, and by Alexander the Great; by the Patans of Gaur, and by the Moguls; by the Portuguese, and by the English. None of the former nations have been permitted to retain their conquests in that country; and 'perhaps the immense possessions of the English will experience the same vicissitude before the termination of the eighteenth century.' The Hindu power has never been totally reduced; it is now concentrated in the Mahratta States; in time it will gain Delhi, and it will again advance to Thibet, the ancient cradle of the religion and sacred language of India. After 600 years of combats, from the time at which Delhi submitted to the Mahomedan yoke, it may perhaps find itself re-instated in its primitive splendor, principally through the preponderance of the Mahrattas.

3. *Hyder Ali Khan and Tippu Sultan.*—Under this head, the author inquires whether the French ought to throw their weight into the scale of the Mysorean hero (as he is pleased to call the late Sultan), or attach themselves to the Mahrattas. The considerations, that induce him to determine in favor of the latter, are similar to the observations which we have just quoted. 'In India, the ancient powers always, in time, resume their ascendancy. This is rather the effect of their *vis inertia*, than of their active force. The system of religion contributes to it, as well as the nature of the country, which, intersected by mountains, conceals the generation of the vanquished, and gives them leisure to recruit; and the veneration which the people always preserve for the blood of their ancient Rajahs, respected even in women.' These circumstances have nourished, and will continue to extend, the Mahratta force. 'But who is Tippu Sultan? The son of a rebel. His troops will desert, or even besiege him in his camp, if fortune begins to abandon him. The prejudice of birth, [the author might have added, the impression of justice,] is against him. If the French espouse his cause, his turbulent disposition must involve them in perpetual warfare. He is now supported only by his military talents. To act the part of a mediator is most agreeable to the character of the French in all disputes between the native princes; 'But shall

shall we suffer (exclaims M. ANQUETIL,) the French flag to appear with secondary dignity in the East? Shall we abandon Bengal to the avidity of our rivals? If the French must unsheath the sword, the unhappy have the first right to our assistance: but the unfortunate honest man, (the States of America and Bengal,) not an usurper, or conqueror, (Tippu Sultan.)'

Although the preceding passages were probably written before 1782, they exhibit the genuine spirit of the present Republican Government of France. Assuming that the Bengalese are unhappy under the English jurisdiction, it follows that to liberate them from their subjection were a service to humanity: but, have the Bengalese carried their complaints to M. ANQUETIL? Would their misery appear so great, if France were to derive no advantage from their cure? Does a spirit of conquest never assume the disguise of disinterested philanthropy?

4. *Political Delineation of the Military Operations of the English, in India, from 1756 to 1783.*—This article, which is even more desultory than any of the former, relates chiefly to the campaigns in the Mahrattâ country, in behalf of Ragonât Row. It concludes with the following remark:

'The English of Bengal are conquerors; those of the coast of Coromandel, financiers; those of the coast of Malabar, freebooters: in this assemblage, where can we recognize the Company? The master is ruined; the servants are opulent; he who enriched them (Mr. Hastings) is, in chains. To finish the romance, the nation, while she confesses that her decline proceeds from an excess of health, ought to recompense nobly the services of this great man; and, better advised, relinquish *bonâ fide* her vast, but dangerous, nay fatal possessions, in all parts of India, particularly on the coast of Malabar.'

We leave our readers to discover the consistency and good sense of this last passage.

5. *Discussion of the Principles of the British Parliament, on the Situation and Government of Bengal.*—Into this discussion it would be superfluous to enter, since its object is only to prove what no one ever doubted; viz, that the Parliament, by sanctioning the treaty of Allahabad, evinced its determination to retain the territorial possessions therein ceded.

6. *Plan of Administration for India.*—Strongly impressed with the necessity of a perfect knowledge of the native languages, in those to whom the conduct of the Company's affairs may be committed, the author proposes that youths of promising genius and liberal education shall be selected, and sent at the age of 25 to different parts of India, to acquire this knowledge. They are subsequently to be employed as inter-

preters; to rise by regular gradation to the highest offices; and, after their return to Europe, to be incorporated in a Board, to whom the correspondence is to be intrusted. Though M. ANQUETIL's suggestions supply nothing that is very profound, or very novel, yet he has here occasion to discuss two important questions: 1st, Whether the Company's servants should rise by seniority? 2dly, Whether the chiefs should be permitted to trade? These he determines (as we think) on the soundest principles of policy: the first in the affirmative; the latter in the negative.

7. *Commerce of India*.—This chapter is indisputably the most important that is contained in the work. Considering the French connection with India as terminated for the present; the author inquires, in the event of its revival at a future period, what situations are best adapted for commercial and political views in that country.

‘Pondicheri, without a port, without a bay, without direct and necessary communications with the Decan, without any article of commerce which is not supplied elsewhere, without natural defence, and which must sometimes be furnished with corn from the coast of Malabar, is little calculated to continue the centre of the French establishments in India. The coast of Malabar, on the other hand, is recommended by the following considerations. 1st, There is less risque of revolutions, by the multitude of small states; divided interests prevent the union of force. 2d, It would be possible to seize on the passes of the mountains, which lie at no great distance, and thus secure the key of the internal commerce of Hindustan. 3d, A solid connection with the Mahrattas, a warlike and faithful people, would insure us an uninterrupted commerce. 4th, A correspondence between Bombay, Bengal, and China, has existed from time immemorial. 5th, The intercourse between the Malabar coast and Bassora, Moca, Suez, the Isle of France, Madagascar, and the Cape of Good Hope, is natural and easily maintained. 6th, A ready communication with the north of Hindustan, with the Patans, the Persians, and even with the Turks.’

Commercial considerations, drawn from the productions of this coast, are not less cogent, in the author's opinion, to induce his countrymen to transfer their chief Presidency from the East Coast to the West.—‘But, where shall this coast be placed? That of Bombay, in an island almost contiguous to that of Salset, is now the only one in India capable of admitting and repairing ships of 74 guns. It would be the most useful conquest which France could undertake in those seas; and it is less difficult than it is generally supposed: having the Mahrattas on our side, it is only necessary to seize a fit opportunity.’ We elsewhere find the following passages; ‘Let us suppose the French placed at Goa, or in any other considerable place
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in the northern part of the Malabar coast ; the Isle of France, of Bourbon, and a good settlement at Madagascar, will form, with the presidency on the coast, a triangle, which will insure the exclusive navigation of the Red Sea and the Gulph of Persia.'

8. In the last portion of this publication, M. ANQUETIL examines what is *the surest and most advantageous Method of conducting the Commerce with India* ; and he determines decidedly in favor of an exclusive company, against what is termed a free trade. To support this opinion, he enters into a review of all the publications, English, Spanish, and French, which have treated this subject ; and he refutes with much acuteness the arguments of his opponents. This point was discussed at so much length and with such eminent ability by Mr. Dundas, in our House of Commons, previously to the last renewal of the Company's charter, that we have derived little accession of knowledge from this part of M. ANQUETIL's production. It may prove, however, of much service to his countrymen, should Indian commerce attract, at a future period, the attention of their Government. He was aware that the idea of exclusive privileges, and public monopolies, would rouse against him an entire host of economists ; and he therefore attacks, with some powers of ridicule, the universal principles, the intuitive knowledge, and the dogmatic philosophy, of this sect.

'I reduce to eight propositions, (says M. ANQUETIL,) the ideas which I have adopted from a personal inspection of the country, combined with the perusal of all the works composed on this subject, in the countries most interested in the commerce of India. Personal inspection ! Perusal of books ! exclaims the sublime genius whom nature has formed to govern the universe ; What did you see there ? You saw mountains, rivers, trees, rocks, towns, and men ; you have been dipping into collections of old opinions, of obsolete prejudices ; What does all that prove ? The National Assembly was petitioned to decree, that no person under 40 years of age should be a member of the Military Committee. The answer was, at 40 you must have seen soldiers, canons, and forts ; are you more skilful on that account ? and the petition was very properly rejected. Man conducts himself by great ideas, applicable to every quarter of the globe. This confused crowd of facts, and of observations, obscures and conceals truth, which shews herself only to those privileged souls who are truly free.'

We shall terminate our account of this production by extracting the writer's concluding observations :

'It is time that this pretended genius should cease in France, or at least that it should yield to the good sense of our ancestors ; who were better skilled than we are in matters of government, on which they had bestowed more attention. Have we been hired by our neighbours to dry up the sources of national riches ? Let us, if we

clubs, vary our amusements. To day, operas, comedies, balloons, parachutes, Martinism, Mesmerism, convulsionism, Cagliostroism, theophilanthropism; to morrow, constitutional clubs, legislature, theatric morality, discourses on liberty, humanity, uniforms, patrols, military exercises, &c. &c.: but let us for ever renounce famine and blood. These atrocious resources are not in character; the Frenchman abhors them. He is brave; the pusillanimous soul is cruel. Ease, the companion of gaiety, abandons a country in which the implacable demagogue, always in the name of liberty, violates or silences the law, and holds in chains the proud soul which disdains to bend before him. The rights of man, of whatever condition, are certain: but I do not wish them to be inscribed on my heart by the point of the bayonet. Let me be free, of my own accord, and not in order to escape a capital punishment. Our fanaticism, much diminished already from what it was, will subside entirely. The India Company will be established in its original state; and abuses, the inseparable companions of riches and authority, will plunge it anew into the same misfortunes which have caused its ruin. Such is the course of human events. I terminate this work by a portrait drawn with a masterly hand, of those Frenchmen to whom, in our present circumstances, India may offer a resource, a plank after shipwreck. "First, to those to whom, though but for an instant, a new atmosphere is become necessary; those who, left in solitude, have lost by the sword of the assassin all which embellished their natal soil; those for whom it is become unproductive; those who there find nothing but regret or remorse; and those who cannot determine to place hope where they have only experienced disappointment; that multitude of political maniacs, those inflexible characters, whom no argument can convert, no event can undeceive; those who always think themselves confined in their own country; greedy speculators, and adventurous speculators; and men who burn to connect their names with discoveries, with the foundation of towns, and with civilization: he for whom France, as now constituted, is still too agitated; he for whom it is too calm; those who can brook no equals, and those who disdain all dependance."—*Talleyrand, dans le compte rendu.*

If all these descriptions of persons must be included in the projected expedition, the natives of Hindustan may well exclaim, "*Quod procul à nobis spectat, Fortuna gubernans.*"—

LUCRET.

ART. IV. *Leçons D'Histoire, &c.; i. e. Lectures on History, delivered at the Normal School.* By F. VOLNEY, Member of the Institute. 8vo. pp. 250. Paris. 1799. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5s. sewed.

AFTER having suffered ten months' imprisonment, M. VOLNEY was exiled from Paris in the 2d year of the Republic: but he was very shortly afterward nominated Professor of History.

in the Normal School*, and was recalled. The lectures contained in this volume were commenced on the 20th of January following; and, according to the rules observed among the Professors, they were delivered from notes; which, being taken down at the time by writers in short hand, have undergone a slight revision, and are printed. The lectures are six in number: of which, the first three have received no additional correction. The author complains that he had only fifteen days to prepare himself: but, history having been during so many years his favorite study, a longer time was probably not necessary.

M. VOLNEY regards history, in the state in which it has hitherto appeared, as the most fruitful source of our prejudices and errors. He advances as a maxim, that we derive our prejudices and false ideas from others by our excess of credulity; and that all our true and exact sentiments spring from our own reflection and experience. This remark, if applied to history only, (and we believe that it is not otherwise intended,) requires some grains of allowance. Men cannot be less liable to receive false impressions from their own misconceptions, than from adopting those of others. The latter part of the position is likewise made too general: history, imperfect as it is, may not be condemned as wholly incapable of communicating moral truths:—yet we nevertheless give full credit to the author's opinion of the mischievous consequences, which have resulted from the generality of readers delivering up their judgments to the historian.—He proposes these lectures as a general preface to history, by way of *preliminary*, to caution the reader against the *empiricism* of historians, and against *his own illusive ideas*; which is granting that we do sometimes *help ourselves to the wrong*.

The first lecture is short, being intended merely as introductory to the rest. It states the particular objects of inquiry, and the method proposed to be pursued, which is in the order following; first, to examine the character of history among different people, and at different ages; thence to inquire what degree of confidence ought to be attached to the relations of history in general, and also in certain particular cases. What importance ought we to attribute to historical facts? What practical utility ought we to propose by the study or by the teaching of history? To what class or classes of citizens, is the study of history most properly suited? What general

* From *Norma*, v. *Normalis*. M. VOLNEY remarks on the word; that is to say, *directress* and *conductress*, which express the real sense of the word *norma*.

truths are the most interesting to deduce from history? (In this last head of inquiry, he reckons the estimating the progress of the sciences and civilization.) What is the degree of civilization to which the present race of mankind have attained : and what general indications of farther improvement does history afford?

In the first part of the inquiry, the author remarks on the difference between tradition and written history, and on the effects produced on history by the invention of printing ; which he regards as the establishment of an epoch that divides, into two different systems, the moral and political state of mankind before and after that discovery ; insomuch that, to determine whether a people ought to be esteemed polished or barbarous, it is sufficient to inquire whether they understand the use of printing and have the liberty of the press.

M. VOLNEY recommends, as the most favorable disposition of mind for receiving historical instruction, a cautiousness of belief : ' he who believes much, deceives himself greatly.' He very amply discusses the nature of the evidence transmitted to us from antiquity, and explains the great difficulty of establishing the precise state of any fact. He asks ' Whether posterity do not often receive and sanction the evidence of the strong oppressor, who has effectually stifled adverse claims and protests?' The Romans and Greeks, he observes, actuated by a spirit of proud and intolerant egotism, annihilated the books of other nations, and destroyed (as far as they could) every testimony which tended to their own discredit.—Speaking of the ruin and misery to which the antient conquerors reduced other nations, he remarks that in Dionysius of Halicarnassus, in Polybius, or even in Tacitus, there will be found none of those movements of indignation, which the picture of so many horrors as they have transmitted to us ought to have excited. ' Love of their country was in them a ferocious, selfish principle, which sanctioned hatred to all other countries.'—Tacitus, who is esteemed (we believe, justly,) as one of the most considerate of the Roman historians, mentions the destruction of some of the German nations by wars among themselves, as a piece of good fortune to the Romans ; and he founds his hopes of safety to the Roman empire, on the prospect of others being exterminated in the same manner.

The author proposes another question ;—Whether it be not as ridiculous to pretend that facts become clearer and better understood by the lapse of time, as to maintain that objects become more distinct as their distance increases? To this it may be replied, that, in perspective, there is one point of view preferable to the nearer as well as to the more remote station ;

so, in distance of time for regarding events, there will often be found advantages which were not attainable by a nearer view. Time, while it removes passions and prejudices, digests and not unfrequently adds to the materials.

Among the causes of obscurity, and the reasons for distrusting historians, M. VOLNEY notices the little that is ever known of political negotiations, on which so much depends; their unavoidable ignorance of many things which they have boldly asserted; and the various motives to partiality by which they have been actuated; all strengthening his argument for the necessity of reading with caution, and rigidly exercising our own judgment.

Notwithstanding his scepticism, the author allows that, within the last hundred years, history has taken a more philosophic character than in early times; and he has endeavoured, from the series of events, to establish an order (which he calls *genealogical*) of causes and their consequent effects, and thence to deduce principles and rules of action.

The utility of history is considered under three heads; its application to *morals*, to *science*, and to *legislation*. The first is reckoned doubtful, the good examples to be found in history being more than balanced by the bad: but the author acknowledges the obligations of *science* and *legislation* to history. To give some idea of the effects which particular histories have produced on mankind, he mentions, among other instances, his opinion that the reading of Homer occasioned the conquest of Asia by Alexander; and he remarks that the reading of Q. Curtius produced in Charles XII. of Sweden the *mania* of imitating Alexander. 'If,' says he, 'the historian and the poet had accompanied their recitals with judicious reflections on the many evils produced by the rage of conquest, and, instead of blaspheming the name of virtue by applying it to warlike actions, had exposed their extravagance and wickedness, the minds of the two young princes would most probably have received another direction.'

We shall not remark on all the objects of M. VOLNEY's inquiry: but the plan which he recommends for composing history claims particular notice. One of his opinions, also, concerning *instruction*, it may be of some use to mention. He believes that *biography* is the only kind of history that is proper for very young people.

To form a history on the most useful model, the author proposes to begin by describing the climate, its temperature in the different seasons, the customary winds, quantity of rain, &c. Next, the physical constitution of the soil; that is to say, the quantity of surface, plain or mountainous, dry or marshy; the
rivers,

rivers, lakes, the general elevation of the land, the different strata and mineralogy, the vegetable productions, the animals, &c. This first ground-work being established, he proposes next to consider the human species, their general temperament, local modifications, the quality and quantity of their food, their most prominent physical and moral qualities, their distribution as inhabitants of towns or of the country; as labourers, artisans, merchants, military, and agents of government. Finally, the system of government, of revenue, commerce, exterior relations, &c. &c. History, he observes, thus embraces the body politic in all its parts, and, (similarly to the nature of biography,) attaching itself to a nation as to an individual, follows through the continuance of its physical and moral existence; and, having previously placed in order all the facts of existence, from their action may more satisfactorily be deduced the causes of advancement or of decay.

To reform history, and to improve it to this standard, the author observes, 'would demand a numerous society of fellow-labourers. The elements of such a society exist in the different academies of Europe; which, whether by their own efforts or by the emulation which they have inspired, have been (whatever may have been said to the contrary,) the grand source and spring of instruction and of science.' 'Each of the academies, considered as a section of the grand society, should especially occupy itself on the history and monuments of its own country.'

Such are M. VOLNEY's ideas on the composition of history. His plan is of such magnitude, that it would require years to adopt, and probably half a century to complete it; and, after all, history on such a model would be the study only of the few. The great majority of readers would recoil from an undertaking which demanded so much close and persevering attention, and would seek relief in history more lightly constructed: but the benefit of the grand model would not be lost; its spirit would infuse itself into new compositions; and history on a less elaborate plan would be rendered the vehicle of much excellent instruction, both in morality and in the knowledge of human nature.

We have observed, with great satisfaction, that, within a few years past, many sensible writers have shewn a strong disposition to divest history of its false colourings. In the work before us, the author has employed a style less florid, and has addressed himself less to the feelings, than in some of his former publications. His view of the subject is comprehensive, his matter is argumentative, and his method is clear. The proposed object of his lectures we regard as highly beneficial,

ficial, and we trust that the publication of them will not be without effect.

In his last lecture, M. VOLNEY proposed to resume the subject after some respite, and to illustrate his maxims by examples: but the Normal School being shortly afterward dissolved, the design was relinquished.

We must not omit to mention that, in one of his lectures, the author has introduced a short dissertation on the construction of halls for deliberative assemblies. The object to which he has principally attended is that of enabling a speaker, with ease, to make himself distinctly heard. Where it is otherwise, he observes, a debate will be frequently carried by strength of lungs. The plan recommended is accompanied with a drawing.—In a note to the same lecture, M. VOLNEY has made a comparison between *Voltaire* and *J. J. Rousseau*, which we submit to the judgment of our readers.

‘ There is this characteristic difference between *Rousseau* and *Voltaire*, considered as leaders of opinions; that if you attack *Voltaire* before his partizans, they defend him without heat, by reasoning or by pleasantry, and at most only regard you as a man of bad taste: but, if you attack *Rousseau* before his admirers, you excite in them a species of religious horror, and they consider you as flagitious.—*Voltaire*, speaking more to the understanding than to the heart, to thought rather than to sentiment, excites no passion; by having been occupied more in combating the opinions of others than in establishing his own, he has produced a habit of doubt, more favourable to tolerance than is that of affirmation. *Rousseau*, on the contrary, addresses the heart and the affections, rather than the understanding; he exalts the love of virtue and of truth (without defining them) by the love of women, so capable of creating illusion; and from a strong persuasion that his own principles are perfect, he suspects in others first the opinion, and afterward the intention:—a situation of mind whence proceed aversion and intolerance.’

ART. V. *Traité du Calcul Differential, &c.*; i. e. A Treatise on the Differential and Integral Calculus. By S. F. LA CROIX. 4to. 2 Vols. pp. 520 and 730. Paris.—Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 2l. 2s.

THE reasons assigned for the publication of the present work, by M. M. *La Place* and *Legendre*, who were appointed to examine it, are the scarcity of the works of Euler on the differential and integral calculus, the improvements which have been made in all branches of analysis since the time of that mathematician, and the difficulty of access to the volumes of the several academies, among which so many important memoirs are dispersed.

In the plan of this work, it is proposed to comprehend and systematize all that has been written on the differential and integral calculus; an undertaking of great utility, labour, and difficulty: since, from the time of Newton to the present day, there has not been produced a single treatise which was at once clear and profound. With deep and intricate disquisitions on the differential and integral calculus, the analytic art has indeed been most abundantly enriched:—but the real source of complaint arises from obscurity and want of evidence in its principles. Although, to remove this obscurity, and to vindicate the stability on which the doctrine of fluxions is built, many elaborate treatises have been written, the greater part of them abound with absurdity and sophistry, and excite a doubt whether the praise which Bacon gives to the mathematics, of habituating the mind to just reasoning, be really due to them. Who would direct his ridicule against the refinements, subtleties, and trifling of the schoolmen, if he read what has been written by some men who were presumed to be the greatest masters of reason, and whose employment and peculiar privilege consisted in deducing truth by the justest inferences from the most evident principles? The history of the differential calculus, indeed, shews that even mathematicians sometimes bend to authority and a name, are influenced by other motives than a love of truth, and occasionally use (like other men) false metaphysics and false logic. No one can doubt this, who reads the controversial writings to which the invention of fluxions gave rise: he will there find most exquisite reasonings concerning quantities which survived their grave, and, when they ceased to exist, did not cease to operate; concerning an infinite derivation of velocities,—and a progeny of infinitesimals smaller than the “moonshine’s wat’ry beams,” and more numerous than

————— “Autumnal leaves that strow the brooks
In Vallombrosa.” (Milton, *Par. Lost.* I. 302.)

The contemporaries and partizans of Newton were men infinitely inferior to him in genius: but they had zeal, and were resolved to defend his opinions and judgments*. Hence they undertook the vindication of fluxions, according to the principles and method of its author; although it may be fairly inferred, from the different explanations given of that doctrine by New-

* The following passage, from the masterly preface of Torelli, was aimed at the partizans of Newton: “*Qui vero, quod unus aliquis affirmaverit, id ita esse sine ulla probatione credit, prepostere agit; dum id homini tribuit, quod unice rationi tribuendum est.*”

ton in different parts of his works, that Newton himself was not perfectly satisfied of the stability of the grounds on which he had established it. It was not to be expected that pigmies should effect that which had baffled a giant: but they acted as men always act in similar circumstances. Bigoted to their opinion, yet, unable to establish it by evident and just reasoning, they employed the arts of sophistry; and hence arose elaborate and refined disquisitions concerning nothings, and perplexing paradoxes concerning the infinite divisibility of matter, abstract extension, and velocities that were to be conceived independently of time and space. The "ghosts of departed quantities," a mighty host of "shadowy entities," were conjured up to enthrall the common sense of mankind. That men, and even those who assume the title of philosophers, should fall into error and absurdity, is no great matter for wonder; history has its thousand similar instances: but it may justly create surprize that Newton, who had invented the method of series, and who to solve a problem * in the second book of his *Principia* had employed first the method of series and then that of fluxions, should not have given to the latter a more natural and scientific origin; and that, in the collision of opposite arguments, more truth should not have been elicited;—because all men, however they might admire, did not believe Newton to be infallible, and some freely and frequently arraigned the obscurity of his method. We may wonder, also, that, having beyond all controversy obtained *truth*, mathematicians should have been unable to make it *science*; for the method was simple and easy in its application, and exact and rigorous in its conclusions. Viewed as a whole, it appeared to possess the greatest stability; though its foundations, seen through a mist, seemed uncertain, and of discordant and unsuitable materials;

——— " *Minimas rerum dissordia vexat,
Pacem summa tenent.*"

The treatise of M. LA CROIX is introduced by an excellent preface, containing a history of the differential and integral calculus: which history is properly dated from the times of

* To find the law of resistance necessary for a heavy body to describe freely a given curve, Newton employed, in the first edition of his *Principia*, the method of series. Here, by neglecting some terms of the series which ought to have been considered, he fell into an error. John Bernouilli detected this error, but not the real cause; and Newton himself, not discerning it, abandoned the method, and gave, in the following edition of his *Principia*, a solution of the same problem according to the method of fluxions.

Euclid and Archimedes, because the methods of exhaustions and limits rest on the same foundation.

‘The discovery of the differential and integral calculus (says the writer,) is to be assigned to no higher a period than that of the last age; but the questions which led to its discovery have been discussed since the earliest times of geometry. When the ancient geometers sought to compare curvilinear figures, either one with another, or with rectilinear figures, they were necessitated to give a new turn to their demonstrations. The 12th proposition of the 12th book of Euclid’s *Elements* offers the first essay of this kind of problems, that has come down to us:—its object is to prove that the surfaces of circles are to one another as the squares of their diameters. In this proposition we pass from finite to infinite; since, in the foregoing proposition, Euclid proves that this relation is the same as that of similar polygons described in two different circles; and it seems evident to me that the geometer, whoever he was, who discovered this truth, perceiving it to be independent of the number of the sides of the polygons, and at the same time that they differed the less from circles as their sides were more numerous, hence necessarily concluded, by virtue of the law of continuity, that the property of the first belonged to the second. By such reasonings, the proposition (their object) is now considered as sufficiently proved; and the generality of elementary books do not give the reasonings equally complete. The ancients were more difficult in this respect than we are; they never indulged themselves in the privilege of confounding two quantities which had a difference, however minute that difference might be. To place beyond the reach of doubt and cavil the proposition of which they may be said to have divined the existence, by the considerations which I have mentioned, they sought to prove that the relation of circles to one another could be neither greater nor less than that of the squares of their diameters; and to obtain such proof, they began by shewing that an inscribed polygon might always be found which only differed from the corresponding circumscribed polygon, and *a fortiori* from the circle itself, by a quantity less than any given magnitude.

‘Archimedes, by nearly similar methods, advanced to the solution of much more difficult problems; such as the relations between the surfaces and solid contents of the cylinder and sphere, the quadrature of the parabola, and the properties of spirals; but let us not imagine that he arrived at these discoveries by the methods transmitted to us.’—

M. LA CROIX then proceeds in his history of the differential calculus, as connected with the several discoveries made by Cavalieri, Roberval, Descartes, Fermat, Huygens, Gregoire de St. Vincent, Pascal, Wallis, Barrow, Leibnitz, and Newton. In our critique on M. Lagrange’s *Theory of Analytical Functions*, (App. Rev. vol. xxviii. p. 481.) we entered into this history; and we refrain from quoting the observations of M. LA CROIX, because they differ so little from those which we have already given to the public. We must confess, however,

ever, that we feel no inconsiderable satisfaction in finding that our opinions on many subjects agree with those of the author of the present treatise. In the article just quoted, we considered particularly the nature of the principle which Newton gave to his doctrine of fluxions; and we shewed that such principle was foreign to the subject, unnecessary, and fictitious; since, when analysed, it was not the real principle from which the doctrine was deduced. M. LA CROIX says:

‘ Newton supposed lines to be generated by the motion of a point, and surfaces by the motion of a line; and he gave the name of fluxions to the velocities which regulated the motions. These notions, although rigorous, are foreign to geometry, and their application is difficult. It is very true that, by imagining a point which moves on a line while the line is carried parallel to itself with an uniform velocity, we may represent any curve whatever: but the velocity of the describing point being variable at each instant, we can only determine it by recurring to the method of the antients, to that of exhaustions, or to that of prime and ultimate ratios. It is of this last method that Newton almost always avails himself; so that, properly speaking, fluxions were to him only a means of giving a sensible existence to the quantities on which he operated. By the method of prime and ultimate ratios, he understood the investigation of the relation of quantities at the first and last instant of their existence, when the quantities were generated or vanished together; and he found, in the prime ratio of spaces described by the ordinate on the line of the abscissas, and by the describing point on the ordinate, (spaces which he called moments,) the ratio of the fluxion of the abscissa to that of the ordinate; whence he determined the direction of the tangent. The calculus was merely that used by Barrow in his method of tangents; which Newton, by means of his formula for the binomial, and by his reduction into series, had extended to irrational expressions. The advantage of the method of fluxions over the differential calculus, in point of metaphysics, consists in this; that, fluxions being finite quantities, their moments are only infinitely small quantities of the first order, and their fluxions are finite; by these means, the consideration of infinitely small quantities of superior orders is avoided.’

The controversy between Newton and Leibnitz, concerning the discovery of the fluxionary calculus, is here examined and decided; and here also we agree with M. LA CROIX, as well as in his opinion concerning the real merit of Leibnitz. The decision of the Committee of the Royal Society is not hastily and inconsiderately to be accused of unjust partiality: but we strongly insist that those men must have had minds deplorably weak, or miserably perverted by party-zeal and national prejudice, who denied the praise of genius to Leibnitz; who, amid a thousand other pursuits, instructed Bernouilli and rivalled Newton, not on subjects of small concern and easy

comprehension, but in a science to which *they* were professedly, solely, and devotedly attached.

In enumerating the mathematicians who had lived since the time of Newton, we mentioned Landen; and the singular instance of his exemption from the prejudices of his countrymen, his solitary fidelity to truth and reason. M. LA CROIX says; 'I can only mention a method which Landen gave in 1758, to avoid the consideration of infinity of motions, or of fluxions, since it rests on a very elegant algebraic theorem which cannot be given in a work of this nature. The freedom with which Landen divests himself of national prejudice stamps a remarkable character on his work; he is perhaps the only English mathematician, who has acknowledged the inconvenience of the method of fluxions.'—That this is true cannot be doubted: but, surely, the dignity of science, and the spirit and freedom of philosophy, should forbid that it may be true any longer! In an age, in which the zeal that persecuted Copernicus and Galileo is never mentioned without abhorrence, and in which the motives that withheld Tycho from embracing the true system of the world are rather ridiculed than vindicated, let us not be so extravagant in our reverential regard to the great Newton, as obstinately to adhere to a faulty method solely because he was the author of it. The genius of Newton was free, bold, and original; he thought for himself, and brooked no master in science; can we, then, pay him more proper and rational respect than by imitating his conduct? We may not, indeed, like him, discover truths: but the fault and the punishment will be our own, if we cling with infatuation to error. Let us learn to make just distinctions. Questions of ethics and government, in their nature uncertain, perplexed, and contentious, require such minute investigation, extensive knowledge, and deep consideration, that it is almost praise-worthy to bow to the great masters of moral and political wisdom: but of mathematical science the nature is simple, the objects are distinct, and the end is determinate: authority has no weight; and reason sternly demands that every thing shall be conducted strictly and exactly according to its laws. If philosophers be biassed by prejudice, and servilely crouch to a name, what can be expected from the herd? *Hec si philosophum decent, qualia sint illa quæ decent vulgus et idiotas?*

It would, however, be an excuse for the English mathematicians, for having persevered in the exposition of the doctrine of fluxions according to the principle of motion, if it could be alleged that its inconvenience, and its want of perspicuity and metaphysical exactness, had not been pointed out: but such an

excuse cannot be brought forwards. In an enlightened age, there are always some men who think for themselves, and perform the meritorious duty of exposing absurdity and error. The opponents of Newton were not men of puny intellects: *Landen*, *D'Alembert*, *Torelli*, and *Berkeley*, are of the number. The first (in his residual analysis) not only pointed out the defects of the method which he attacked, but proposed an equivalent method, resting on more sure and suitable foundations. The second,—the most acute, learned, and metaphysical of mathematicians,—analyzed the principle of velocity, and proved it to be fictitious; or, in other words, not to be the real principle from which in practice the fluxionary expressions were deduced. The third,—the nervous *Torelli*, educated under the severe discipline and in the love of the antient geometry,—castigated without mercy the new geometry; which, while it boasted the extent of its powers, forgot the obscurity of its principles and its imprudent sacrifice of perspicuity to illusive and imaginary conciseness. The fourth,—the scrupulous, inquisitive, discerning, and precise *Berkeley*,—with a rich vein of wit and argument, employed against the new doctrine his various and extensive powers; he assailed its logic and metaphysics with his light weapons and his heavy battery, with shafts of ridicule and grave arguments, with sarcastic interrogations and solid objections. Had the native insignificance of the fluxionary calculus doomed it to perish, the wit and poignant raillery of Berkeley had perpetuated its memory, and “ridiculed it into immortality.”—but, in spite of these attacks, the English mathematicians have still persevered in their opinions; deeming it perhaps more meritorious to err with Newton, than to think justly with other men. Forgetful of the nature and excellence of mathematical reasoning, they have proved principles by conclusions, or have employed methods which are suspicious and indirect; and in demonstration, instead of a firm and immovable conviction, erected by the most just inferences on the surest principles, they have been contented with a rational faith and moral persuasion.

In the latter part of M. LA CROIX's preface, mention is made of a memoir by *Carnot*, which has been communicated to him; and in which, the principles of the differential calculus are said to be discussed with great care, and this point made evident; that it is by virtue of the law of continuity, that vanishing quantities preserve the same ratio to which they continually approach previously to their state of evanescence.

This memoir, (says M. LA CROIX,) which it is to be hoped will soon be made public, proves that, if words had been created only when it was necessary, ideas had been much more evident. In calling differential

differential equations, imperfect equations, *Carnot* throws great light on their theory. In fact, when we consider the differentials which they contain, as representing the increments of variable quantities, they only obtain approximately: but their degree of exactness is in some sort indefinite, because it depends on the degree of minuteness which we give by supposition to the changes of variable quantities; and since nothing bounds this minuteness, the differential equations may be made to approach the truth by any degree of exactness. These are *Leibnitz's* ideas translated analytically.—After this, *Carnot* makes it appear how imperfect equations become rigorous at the end of the calculation, and by what sign their justness may be recognized: this sign is the total disappearance of the differential quantities, whence the error, were there any, might proceed.—A judgment of the work must not be formed by the little that has been said of it; and it is not only in the manner (peculiar to *Carnot*) of considering the differential calculus that consists the merit of his memoir, but in the comparison of the different views under which this calculus has been presented.*

M. LA CROIX says that he was first encouraged to undertake the present work by the perusal of *La Grange's* memoir published in the Berlin Acts for 1772; of which we made mention in our criticism on the analytic functions of that author, already quoted. It was *La Grange*, beyond doubt, who first stated that the differential calculus was merely an ingenious instrument, founded on the method of developing algebraic functions into series. According to this mathematician, every algebraic function might be reduced into a series proceeding according to the powers of the differences of the quantities of which the function was composed, and the coefficients of the terms of which series were independent of the differences. In the research of these coefficients and their properties, the differential calculus consists*.

After the Preface, we find an Introduction; in which the author gives instances of several series, and explains what is meant by the sum of an infinite series. He also explains the term *infinite*, and remarks, after *M. D'Alembert*, that the idea of it is properly negative. In calculation, no infinite quantities

* In a note, in which *M. LA CROIX* mentions at what time (1787) he began to collect materials for the present work, he quotes a valuable extract from a letter from *M. La Place*, written in 1792. 'I see with much pleasure that you are engaged in a great work on the differential and integral calculus. The several methods, by being brought together, will throw mutual light on each other; what they contain in common is most generally their true *metaphysique*; and this is the cause why the *metaphysique* is almost always the last thing that is discovered. Genius arrives at results by instinct; and it is only by reflecting on the route which others have followed, that we are able to generalize methods, and to discover their true metaphysics.'

can enter; when we speak of them, we do so for the convenience of an abridged mode of expression: but much mistake has arisen from their introduction, because their significancy has not always been explained, and men have tortured their wits to affix to them positive ideas: all calculation can be made independent of them.

A principal proposition in the doctrine of functions is to shew that, in a form proceeding according to the powers of x ($Ax^m + Bx^n + \&c.$) a value of x can be assigned, such that the first term shall be greater than the sum of the succeeding terms, by any excess. This proposition M. LA CROIX proves by no very clear and accurate method. M. La Grange has likewise proved it by considering the terms of the series into which an algebraic function may be converted, as the ordinates of a curve.

Newton discovered the law of the coefficients of a binomial raised to any power, but was unable to establish the law on strict mathematical demonstration. His method was by inference: but inductive methods never satisfy mathematicians. In the analytic functions of M. La Grange, the law for the coefficients of a binomial is an immediate consequence of the general law which obtains for the developement of all algebraic functions: but the method for a general demonstration can always be applied to a particular case. This the present author has done, and the principle of his method is precisely the same as that given in the Analytic Functions: the method is by expanding the trinomial $p+x+u$ two ways; first considering $p+x$ as one quantity, and next, $x+u$; then, since the two expressions are identical, compare the terms affected with like powers of x and u ; whence result the values of the arbitrary coefficients. In one part, however, M. LA CROIX's proof is deficient; he omits to shew that the developement of $(p+x)^n$ must ascend according to the powers of x .

Next is proved the law for the developement of a multinomial, first given by De Moivre in his *Miscellanea Analytica*. This law may be deduced either by aid of the previously established form of the binomial, or by immediately investigating the law on the principle of the establishment of that form. If a be the basis of the system, then if $y=a^x$, x is the logarithm of y , and two problems present themselves; one to determine x and the other y . The common method of solution for these problems is by fluxions, and is objectionable only as far as that branch of analysis is imperfectly treated in its origin. M. LA CROIX solves these problems by a strict algebraic process, but awkwardly. We are averse from invidious comparisons; yet

we must observe that *M. La Grange's* method is far preferable for evidence and conciseness.

As the series for the logarithm is not convergent, except y be nearly equal to unity, it would be of little use for the calculation of logarithms; the author therefore shews how the series may be converted into one which shall quickly converge; thus, since $y = a^x$, $y^m = a^{mx}$, put therefore in the former series y^m for y , and mx for x , and we have

$$x = \log. y = \frac{(y^m - 1) - \frac{1}{2}(y^m - 1)^2 + \dots}{m A}$$

where m may be taken such a fraction, that y^m shall differ from 1 by any quantity, how small soever.

After the formulas for the logarithms of quantities, are given the formulas for the sine and cosine of an arc, &c.

In Chapter I. *on the analytic Exposition of the Principles of the Differential Calculus*, the author observes that it is difficult to clearly explain the nature of the differential calculus, to those who are ignorant of its first notions: not that the calculus cannot be rigorously defined, but that the definition must borrow ideas remote from the ordinary circumstances of life, and from the parts of the mathematics which are the object of preceding speculations. 'Happily,' continues the author, 'we are not obliged to commence a treatise with definitions, which, as Pascal says, consist only in imposing a name on things which have clearly been designated in terms perfectly known.'

M. LA CROIX considers the differential calculus in precisely the same point of view in which *M. La Grange* regarded it in the Berlin Acts for 1772, and subsequently in an express and formal treatise, of which we have frequently made mention. Without adhering closely to *M. LA CROIX's* notation and method, we shall endeavour, as briefly as possible, to give the substance and spirit of his reasoning.

Let $u = f x$ be any function of x ; then, if for x we substitute $x + b$, the development of $f(x + b)$ will be of this form:

$$f(x + b) = f x + f' x b + \frac{f'' x b^2}{1.2} + \dots, \&c.$$

the coefficients $f' x$, $f'' x$, &c. being derived from the primitive function $f x$, and independent of b .

$$\text{Hence } f(x + b) - f x = f' x b + \frac{f'' x b^2}{12} + \dots, \&c.$$

which quantity represents the difference between $f x$ and what $f x$ becomes when x is increased to $x + b$. Let the first term of this difference be called the differential, and be denoted by the expression $df x$; hence we have $df x = f' x b \therefore f' x = \frac{df x}{b}$. Hence to have $f' x$, divide the difference between two successive values of

of $f x$ by the increment: but, since $f' x$ is independent of h , h must disappear by this division, and may be represented by any symbol at pleasure. Hence, for the sake of uniformity in the signs, let h be represented by dx ∴ $f' x = \frac{dfx}{dx}$. Hence to find dfx , or the differential of $f x$, write in $f x$, $x + dx$, for x , develop $f(x + dx)$ as far as the terms affected with the first power of dx , and subtract $f x$. —

$$\text{Since } f(x + dx) - f x = f' x dx +, \&c.$$

$$f'(x + dx) - f' x = f'' x dx +, \&c.$$

$$\&c. = \&c.$$

$$f' x dx = dfx, \quad f'' x dx = df' x$$

$$\text{therefore } f'' x = \frac{df' x}{dx} = d \left(\frac{dfx}{dx} \right)$$

But since dx is invariable,

$$f'(x + dx) dx - f' x dx = f'' x dx$$

$$\text{hence } df' x dx = f'' x dx$$

but $df' x dx = d dfx = d^2 f x$ (d not meaning a symbol d squared; but denoting the second differential of $f x$ to be taken): hence

it appears, since $f'' x = d \left(\frac{dfx}{dx} \right)$ and $= \frac{d^2 f x}{dx^2}$; that $d \left(\frac{dfx}{dx} \right) =$

$\frac{d^2 f x}{dx^2}$; and thus the derived functions $f' x$, $f'' x$, $f''' x$, &c.

may be represented by the quantities $\frac{dfx}{dx}$, $\frac{d^2 f x}{dx^2}$, $\frac{d^3 f x}{dx^3}$, &c. *

so that the developement of $f(x + h)$ takes this form,

$$f x + \frac{dfx}{dx} h + \frac{d^2 f x}{1.2. dx^2} h^2 +, \&c.$$

the celebrated theorem of Taylor.

M. LA CROIX next proceeds to demonstrate the known forms for the differentials of rectangles, fractions, hyperbolic logarithms, circular arcs, &c. He also deduces the differentials of equations, and of a function of two variable quantities, as $f(x, y)$; and his methods, although they want the neatness and brevity which are displayed in those of M. La Grange, yet do not essentially differ from them.

The latter part of the first chapter is occupied in shewing the affinity of the method of differential coefficients, to that of the limits of ratios which the increments of variable quantities have to each. The affinity is thus shewn: Let u be a func-

* The expressions dx , $d^2 x$, $d^3 x$, dx^2 , dx^3 , &c. in the English notation are equivalent to x' , x'' , x''' , x^2 , x^3 , &c.

tion of x : when x becomes $x + b$, u becomes $u + pb + qb^2 + rb^3 + \dots$, &c. p, q, r , &c. being derived from u , and independent of b .

Let $k = pb + qb^2 + \dots$, &c. — then $\frac{k}{b} = p + qb + rb^2 + \dots$, &c.

Let $b = 0$; then $\frac{k}{b} = p$, or the limit of $\frac{k}{b}$ is p , the first differential coefficient derived from u . In like manner, considering p as a new function, when x becomes $x + b$, p becomes $p + p'b + q'b^2$, &c. &c.

Hence $\frac{k'}{b} = p' + q'b + \dots$, &c.

When $b = 0$, limit of $\frac{k'}{b}$ is p' , and so on.

Chapter II. is on the principal analytical Uses to which the differential Calculus is applied. — These uses are the conversion of multinomials, raised to any power, into series ascending to the powers of the unknown quantities; the expression of the logarithm of quantities, and the arcs of circles, by infinite series in terms of sine, cosine, tangent, &c; the determination of the values of fractions, when the numerators and denominators vanish; the methods of ascertaining the maxima and minima of quantities, &c.

To these uses, it is well known, the differential calculus has long been applied. The application is of no great difficulty, and the method followed by M. LA CROIX does not materially differ from the methods pointed out in former treatises. We pass on, therefore, to

Chapter III. which is called a *Digression on Algebraic Equations*. — The problems first solved by M. LA CROIX are the assigning the sum of the m^{th} powers of the roots of an equation, the sum of quantities of this form, $\alpha^m \beta^n \gamma^r$, &c. $+ \alpha^n \beta^m \gamma^r$, &c. α, β, γ , being the roots of an algebraic equation: these two problems are those which were solved by Waring in the beginning of his *Meditationes Algebraicae*.

The author next goes on to shew the possibility of decomposing, into real factors of second degree, any equation of an even degree. He proves that every equation of a degree p will have a real factor of second degree, if every equation of the degree $\frac{p \cdot (p-1)}{2}$ has a real factor, whether of 1^{st} or 2^{d} degree;

$\pm x^m \pm a^m = 0$ is resolved into its factors.

In detecting the number of impossible roots of an equation, he employs a rule of M. *La Grange*, which is the same as the rule given by Waring in page 82 of his *Meditationes*.

In speaking of the controversy between *Leibnitz*, *Bernouilli*, *Euler*, and *D'Alembert*, concerning the logarithm of negative quantities, M. LA CROIX inclines to the opinion of *Euler*.

Chap. IV. treats on *Curve Lines*:—but we must now suspend the farther consideration of this work till a future opportunity.
[To be continued.]

ART. VI. M. Millin's *National Antiquities of France*, Vol. V.

AFTER long delay and much diligent inquiry, we are at length able to lay before our readers some account of another part of this publication. We must refer them to Vol. X. of our New Series, p. 545, for the preceding volume; and they will there see that we bestowed considerable commendation on the performance, which we have no reason for recalling on a perusal of the pages before us. The author is not a commonplace retailer of objects which fall under every person's notice; nor indeed a mere describer of those which are more neglected, or concealed from general attention: but he appears to be a scientific *describer*, disposed to entertain, and qualified to improve the reader.

Were we to enter into a minute account of the contents of this work, we should transgress those boundaries which justice and necessity impose: we shall therefore only offer a general view, with remarks on two or three of the subjects which present themselves. The articles in this volume are not numerous; because some of them are replete with topics which demand particular attention, and are therefore extended to greater length than others. Their distinct titles are as follow: *Collegiate Church of St. Nicholas at Amiens*; *Carthusian Monastery of Paris*; *Antient Palace of Lisle*; *Collegiate Church of St. Peter, Lisle*; *Hôpital Comtesse at Lisle*; *Dominicans at Lisle*; *Recollets at Lisle*; *Castle; de Comines*; *Saint Landry, Paris*; *Abbey of St. Gèneviève, Paris*; *Library of St. Peter, Lisle*.

The *Chartreuse de Paris*, or the Carthusian Monastery, makes a distinguished figure; its domain was extensive, its buildings were large and various, its different departments and ornaments were curious, and often well executed, and it is besides connected with history and events which cannot fail to interest an exact and intelligent examiner. In one part, we remark an inscription dictated, as the author properly expresses it, by fanaticism and adulation, congratulating Lewis XIII on his *triumphant entry* on the extermination of heretics at Rochelle: that murderous exploit was honored by the monks with the erection of a triumphal arch for the sanguinary monarch.—In another part, we observe the tomb of Hugh, or in the catholic

style, St. Hugues, an early and zealous Carthusian, invited by Henry II. to England; where, as Bishop of Lincoln, he was distinguished during that reign, and those of Richard and John. He died in the year 1200; and his funeral was pompous, it is said, beyond any thing that England had seen; besides multitudes of other ranks, barons and kings assisted at the interment at Lincoln; and several years afterward, the body, found entire, was removed and deposited with the utmost magnificence in the monastery in France.—In connection with this country, we may take notice of another saint, Saint-Hervé; whose father, a native of England, came very young to the court of France. *Hervé* was born blind; yet, under this impediment, he made considerable proficiency in the sort of knowledge which marked his time, and (as it is said) wrought several miracles, two or three of which, rather of a humourous and diverting kind, are here related; sufficient to discover the base assurance of those who could forge and impose these legendary tales, and the simplicity or sottishness of those who could bestow on them any regard.

In one of the numerous chapels belonging to this edifice, an altar appears, with this inscription; *Autel Privilegié*. Several of our readers probably know that these altars have been held in high estimation. We are sometimes carried back, for their origin, to the year 820; while others bring it down so low as the council of Trent, or about the year 1563, when a brief for the purpose was obtained from Pope Gregory XIII, and these *privileged altars* no doubt proved a source of rich consolation. The regular monks, as well as the mendicants, readily adopted the practice, and even added to the golden inscription, *here by every mass a soul is released from purgatory*. Some are said to have promoted the delusion so far as, by means of artificial sparks or flames, during the impious service, to persuade the people that the released soul then flew into paradise. A monk, it is related, passing through an usual examination, being interrogated concerning his opinion of privileged altars, replied, "I think them very productive;" or that "they yield great profit," (*sont d'un grand produit*). One jesuit amused the people with an ingenious, and to himself, no doubt, a lucrative conceit, when he persuaded them that he was himself an *autel privilégié*; that is, that he imparted benefits of the same kind to any and every altar at which he officiated.

In one of the cloisters, are twenty-two paintings, which we are informed have attracted the attention and admiration of artists throughout Europe; and which were executed in the year 1648, by the celebrated *Lesueur*, mentioned as holding the first rank in the French school for painting. They are on wood,

wood, and placed in handsome arcades opposite to the windows of painted glass. The subject is the life of Saint *Bruno*, the founder of the monastery, whose history had been painted twice before; once, in 1350, on the walls; and a second time, in 1510, on linen-cloth. These paintings are particularly described, with remarks on their beauties or defects. Each of these pictures was accompanied with lines of poetry.—At the commencement of the revolution, some care was adopted for their removal: but, unfortunately, the *intendant*, or overseer of buildings, began to take them down before a place was provided for their reception; and they were hurried into granaries, where they have perished, with many others of the superb gallery of Rubens.

This article is terminated by a brief notice of *Dom Felice Nonante*, the last prior of this house; who is said to have been equally eminent for virtue and for the love of letters: but nothing could escape the persecution, from internal or external causes, which has recently deluged France with blood; and he perished, says this writer, by the punishment at that time reserved for whatever was useful and meritorious.—In such terms, do those, who approved the principles of the first revolution in France, speak of the horrible consequences which art, fraud, and wickedness afterward effected.

The collegiate church of St. Peter at Lisle occupies a great number of pages; accompanied by a short account of the city, in which we particularly remark the use made of dogs for carriage and for draught. They are harnessed as horses are; and three of them draw a little loaded cart, of which a view is given in the print of the antient churches of St. Etienne and St. Peter. We are told that this practice has been introduced at Paris, since the failure of horses.—Numerous are the tombs and monuments here brought under review; all of which we must pass over, and proceed to the chapels. Cybele and Diana had not in antient times, says M. MILLIN, so many churches and chapels as are dedicated to *Mary*. The chapel of *Notre Dame* immediately followed the building of the church of St. Peter. The stone-statue of the virgin, sometimes exhibited in public procession, is surrounded by an ornamented and gilded lattice; on which account it is distinguished as *Notre Dame de la Treille*; and we may imagine, remarks this writer, that *Notre Dame de la Treille* does not yield for the gift of miracles to all or any of the other *Notre Dames* in the world. It yields, however, in decoration and magnificence, to that which next occurs, *Notre Dame des sept douleurs*, (of the seven sorrows) raised at the expense of Philip the Good, who signalized his devotion by a representation of *Mary*, exerting herself to re-animate the body
of

of Jesus. It was constructed, we are told, entirely of marbles but nothing so powerfully attracted attention as the magnificent monument which was placed in the middle, to the memory of Lewis de Masle, Count of Flanders, who died A. D. 1384: this tomb is particularly distinguished by a number of figures, in distinct arches on every side, representing twenty-three princes of the Flemish house; each on a small pedestal bearing the arms, name, and title, exactly and handsomely sculptured and festooned. The statues are distinctly noticed by M. MILLIN, according to the figures which are here engraved; of some we find little or nothing more than a description of the dress and ornaments, to which considerable attention is given as marking the manners or costume of different times. The third of these figures is *Jean sans peur* (John, without fear) son of the French king; who received this title on account of the intrepidity with which he appeared before *Bajazet* the Turk, when taken prisoner in one of the crusades. He is the man who assassinated the Duke of Orleans; and his military achievements are said to have been such as defeated all the measures employed to avenge that atrocious crime. At the very time, however, when terms of reconciliation were just concluding between him and the court of France, and when the Dauphin in amity (as it seemed) held out his hand, he was murdered on the bridge of Montereau, A. D. 1417.—Charles, who is the fifth in this list, having been vanquished in a battle with the French and Swiss, had the mortification of seeing them plunder his most valuable treasures, and particularly that fine diamond which has since made a part of the jewels of the French crown, and been called *le régent*. This prince was surnamed the *hardy*, the *warrior*, the *terrible*, the *rash*; 'happy had he been, (says our author,) had he merited the surname of the *prudent*, the *sage*.'

Among the remarks here made on the habiliments of these figures, we find it observed that, 'about the year 1427, a Carmelite preached at Lisle, who exerted all his power of eloquence against the extravagant head-dress of the ladies; he delivered not fewer than seventeen sermons on the subject; and his oratory is said to have been so efficacious as to excite the young men to traverse the streets provided with hooks, to tear away this part of the female covering and cast it in the mire.'

The abbey of *St. Genevieve* at Paris constitutes a very large part of the volume. This young shepherdess, if indeed there was such a person, appears to have been born near Paris somewhere about the year 427, and to have died in that city, A. D. 512. If we might credit legendary lore, she early devoted herself

herself, her crook, and her distaff, to the service of religion; and laid the foundation of a building which proved, in a course of years, a monastery famed for grandeur and riches, and in some instances for useful learning, as well as for superstition, fraud, and tyranny.—The church seems at first to have been known by the name of St. Peter and Paul, and it was not until about the year 1148, that the whole edifice was distinguished by that of Genevieve.—Within the walls of the church, rest the remains of that great man, *R. Descartes*, to whose memory a handsome monument was erected several years after his decease. To the learned world he is well known; and, however he might be mistaken in some of his researches and conclusions, he was a philosopher of extensive ability. The boldness of his system drew on him a multitude of enemies; whose persecutions (as this writer remarks) gave him a distaste to his ungrateful country, and engaged him readily to yield to a pressing invitation from Christina, queen of Sweden. ‘Disgraceful it was (says M. MILLIN) to his contemporaries, to have surrendered to a foreign princess the honour of remunerating talents so distinguished.’ He died at Stockholm, A. D. 1650, at the age of fifty-three, and was interred, according to the ceremonial of the Romish church, in the burial-ground allotted for strangers. It is rather remarkable that the learned though fanciful queen should not have provided handsomely to defray the funeral-charges: but we are here told that the interment was very plain, and at the expence of the family,—as we conclude is intended by the words, *de sa succession*. Seventeen years afterward, his remains, at the solicitation of his friend *M. Dalibert*, treasurer of the kingdom, were transported to France, and with great magnificence were deposited in the church of St. Genevieve. The Chancellor of the University, *P. Lallemant*, had prepared an oration for the occasion, which an order from the court forbid him to pronounce.—Near him lies *J. Robault*, one of the most zealous and most skilful of his disciples, who has also a handsome monument erected to his memory.

The shrine of *Genevieve* will doubtless engage the attention of many readers. The bones of the saint (or of some other persons) are inclosed in a coffer, in form somewhat like a church, most richly and expensively decorated, and placed on the high altar, whence it was not removed but on extraordinary occasions, or on a great public calamity; and then, with amazing parade, it has sometimes been exhibited in a grand procession.—In the year 1161, a report was spread through the city, that the *Head* of the patroness of Paris had been carried off; and the king, equally alarmed apparently with the crowd, gave immediate

edate

diatc direction that the archbishop *de Sens*, with two other bishops, should open and examine the coffer: this was accordingly done, and the agitated populace were tranquillized on the assurance that the *head*, together with the rest of the body, was safe and sound.

It might be expected that, among the monuments, would be seen the tomb of king Clovis, in whose time Genevieve lived; and by whom she was greatly favoured and honoured: but a slight inspection proves that the monument, asserted to be his, is of far more modern date; an erection of Cardinal *Rocheaucault*, who died in the year 1645. *Rocheaucault* effected a considerable reform in the house, and afforded some reason for applying to him what had been said of Augustus relative to the city of Rome, *Invenit lateritiam, reliquit marmoream* *.—*Pierre Fourier*, a prior of this monastery, (as we conclude,) in the seventeenth century, seems to have been principally remarkable for contests with the devils who came to invade his territories: one of these troublesome spirits being asked, on a particular occasion, where he had been for two or three days, during which he had given no answer to the exorcist, replied 'that he had been to the city of Lorraine to take vengeance on a priest, who had persecuted his fraternity, by rousing against them all the men and women of every age and condition, so as to cause him great labour and difficulty.'

The library of this monastery forms the last article in the volume: some account had been given of it in the preceding number, where the building was described, and we were told of the assistance which it received from Cardinal *Rocheaucault*; since whose time, the books have gradually increased to the number of seventy or eighty thousand volumes. This library appears to be at present protected with great assiduity. The chapter, which professes to give a distinct account of it, furnishes chiefly the transcript of a manuscript there found, which relates the solemn entry of Philip and Isabel into Lisle in the year 1600. It is long, and accompanied by several prints. This celebrated entry resembles very much, although it appears more pompous, some antient royal processions in our own country.

We have perused with pleasure this additional volume, in which the author is generally temperate and moderate in his reflections on fanaticism and priestcraft: though in some instances he seems to relate pretended miracles as if he believed them, it is clear that he does not. His remarks and criticisms on different subjects of art, on language, words, &c. are well worthy of notice; his descriptions and historic relations will certainly be acceptable; and the numerous engravings will

* He found it of brick, he left it of marble.

prove very entertaining: several of them are, in point of perspective, among the best that we remember to have seen in productions of the French press.

ART. VII. *Paris pendant les Années 1799 & 1800: Paris during the Years 1799 & 1800.* By M. PELTIER.

IN our last Appendix, we terminated our account of this agreeable work with only the xxiii^d vol. at No. LXXXIV. and now three vols. more, of 5 Numbers each, have appeared. We can therefore mention only a few particulars. The xxiii^d vol. begins with No. LXXXV, published July 31st; prefixed to which we find an advertisement from the editor, complaining of the difficulty, or rather impossibility, of obtaining genuine information of the state of France, from the 4th of December 1797, to June the 18th 1799; not only from the restraints of the press, but from the total embargo for some time laid on every species of news-papers, to prevent them from reaching England. About this time (June), however, there was an appearance seemingly favourable to the liberty of the press, for which several champions appeared in the Senate; and the editor hoped that his political articles in future would become more interesting.

Among the poetical articles of this number, Messrs. *Le Saget* have contributed, together with *Maubert*, *Dupaty*, and others, some lively and ingenious pieces. These are followed by calm and rational reflections on a pamphlet written by *Boulay de la Meurthe*, intitled: "Essay on the causes which occasioned the Revolution of 1649 in England, and the Establishment of a Republic:" from which, extracts were given by M. PELTIER in his LXXXIII^d number. An answer to this pamphlet, by *Benj. Constant*, of Geneva, is announced.

The next article is an account of the Expedition to Egypt, with a description of numerous antiquities of that country; ornamented with figures, by *Charles Norry*, Member of the Philotechnic Society, and one of the Architects in the Egyptian Expedition: a small work, but amusing and instructive, as far as it goes.

No. LXXXVI. *Literary Miscellanies.*—The *Si*, or the *If*, by a young poet of the renowned name of *Depriau*:—in which he tells us whom he would be in learning, science, and talents, if he were allowed to change his acquirements: but, self-complaisant, he finishes, like a true Frenchman, (and perhaps, like a true mortal in any country,) by owning that, if he were any other human being on earth, he should always wish to be his *present self*.

Dialogues

Dialogues between a natural head of hair and a peruke.—

The *Tree of Cracovia*.—Political discussion between two disputants: one of whom believes every thing, the other nothing.

No. LXXXVII. The literary part of this number contains many interesting and curious articles. It begins with an account of an "Essay on Antient Fables, and their History;" a posthumous work of the late scientific and elegant writer, M. *Bailly*, 2 vols. 8vo. addressed to Madame *Dubocage*.

The analysis, extracts, and reflections relative to this publication, by M. PELTIER, compose an article of considerable length and importance. M. *Bailly* had peculiar ideas concerning the antiquity of the world, the origin of science, antient fables, mythology, and astronomy, at which he frequently glances in his correspondence with *Voltaire*, and in his *Atlantide*. The present work is a farther developement of these favourite ideas, written after the decease of *Voltaire*. We have not seen the performance itself: but M. PELTIER has furnished us with a perfect conception of its tenour and merit. The same ingenuity, close reasoning, and elegance of style occur in it, which distinguished the former scientific and philosophic productions of this excellent writer, but ill-fated politician.

Discovery of the Maritime Arsenal of the Lacedemonians; extracted from a Memoir of M. *Jumelin*, read at the National Institute.—MS. Negotiation between the K. of Prussia (*Fredéric*) and *Voltaire*. This extract from the life of *Voltaire*, written by himself, will strengthen the general belief that Frenchmen, of whatever rank or profession, seldom correspond with or visit foreign countries without employing their thoughts, or being employed, in politics.

Poetry.—*History of a great Lady*, written by herself, in stanzas. This great personage is no other than *My Lady Republic*; who is not much flattered, though her own biographer. *Ode on the Dangers of the country*, by *Le Brun*: written during the antient monarchy, but applied to the present state of France. *Stanzas to Parthenissa*, by *Racine*, never published in any edition of his works. *Epistle to Fools*, by no common stringer of rhymes;—&c. &c.

Dramatic Representations. Ballad-Theatre. A sketch of the life of *Monet* the founder of that theatre, under the more appropriate title of *Comic Opera*. He is now made the hero of a little drama. It was *Monet* who brought over to England the French dancers, which occasioned such riots at Drury-lane, and such loss to Garrick the patentee.

Gilles the Aéronaut, or America at no great distance: a comedy in one act.—This piece was represented on the day before

before that on which *Blanchard* had promised to set off with *M. la Lande*, the astronomer, in a fleet of balloons for America. It does not appear that this voyage took place, nor that the farce which ridiculed the plan had much success.—*A Lover's Arbitration*, a comedy in one act, by the younger *Segur*, seems to have been well received at the city theatre.

Account of the death of the celebrated Canon *Pauw*, (author of *Inquiries concerning the Americans, Egyptians, and Greeks*,) at Xanto, near Aix la Chapelle, aged 60. Account of curiosities in the fine arts, lately arrived at Paris from Italy; among the rest, the Pope's grand and inestimable collection of medals, &c. &c.

New Books.—Memoirs of *Mademoiselle Dumesnil*, the Actress, in answer to the Memoirs of *Mademoiselle Clairon*: with a Letter by the celebrated Actor *Lekain*, together with several curious Anecdotes relative to the French Theatre. 1 Vol. 8vo. ' This work is said to be very piquant. The author discusses in it, very minutely, the *Mem. de Clairon*, and points out the errors, without omitting to do justice to the prodigious talents of that actress. The criticism abounds with taste, learning, grace, vivacity, and refined pleasantry.'

Verses "on the Immortality of the Soul;" written by the Abbé *Delille*, during his imprisonment by *Robespierre*, in 1794, just before the fall of that tyrant; who had graciously condescended to allow the world permission to believe that there was a God. The terrible Committee of Public Safety required from the poet his opinion on the subject of the soul's immortality. If he had refused to comply with their requisition, the guillotine was then permanent, and would certainly have rendered him "shorter by the head;" and if he had complied, in the sense of the rulers of France at that time, he would have levelled himself with the *Chepiers*, *Le Bruns*, and *Désorgues*, who were denouncing all religious principles as superstition, below the dignity of man. The Abbé, however, chose to risque the vengeance of the dreadful committee, rather than sacrifice his conscience; and, uniting true courage with the power of his talents, he gave such a lesson to the tyrants of France as would infallibly have cost him his life, had not the revolution of the 9th of Thermidor (27th July) soon afterward saved his head, and favoured his flight to Switzerland; where he remained concealed for a considerable time, and composed his *Georgiques Françaises*.

No. CLXXXVIII. *Literary Articles*.—*Lycæum, or Course of Lectures on Literature, antient and modern*, by *M. de la Harpe*. This important work, which was mentioned in our former account of *M. PELTIER's* journal, has now furnished him with

materials for an excellent article, consisting of more than 20 pages. We pass it over, however, in hopes of taking up the work *de novo*, when we are able to procure a copy.

On the Alexandrian Library, and its pretended Destruction by the Saracens, under the Califf Omar.—No historical fact, nor any individual character, however long and well established, is allowed to remain in quiet during these sceptical times. Infidelity, after having shaken religious opinions of all kinds, attacks historical credibility with equal fury. The articles of our poetical creed have been assaulted by Mr. *Bryant*; the Parian Marbles, by Mr. *Robertson*; and now we are told by *Herr Reinhard*, a German, that we are not only to disbelieve the destruction of the Alexandrian library by the Arabian Mahometans, but that there ever was, in the time of the Saracens, a library at Alexandria to destroy. If one did exist, after the time of Mahomet, we are given to understand that it was the Christians who performed the destructive act.—In a few centuries, our descendants will probably be told by some ingenious critic, that there was no rebellion in our country during the xviith century; and that Charles the First, *if he ever existed*, died in his bed.—We shall not attempt to interfere farther with this controversy: but the burning of the Alexandrian library has been so often described, believed, and lamented, by persons of the highest literary eminence and caution, that neither the doubts nor the assertions of two or three individuals will shake our faith.

Poetry.—Letter concerning the Abbé *Delille*. The enthusiasm with which M. PELTIER speaks of this admirable poet does him honour, and is not to be set down to the account of that national partiality of which the French are frequently accused. The steady loyalty, piety, and morality, of this writer, during the present times, are as extraordinary as his poetical abilities. In the present letter, several happy traits are given from the Abbé's exquisite poem on *Imagination*; which has never been printed, and a great part of it never yet perhaps committed to paper. The Abbé's eyes being very feeble, he never reads his verses, but repeats them from memory; to the astonishment of all those to whom nature has been parsimonious in her gift of this faculty.

No. CLXXXIX. contains various amusing and interesting articles, but nothing which particularly excites our attention.

VOL. XXIV. No. CXC. This volume begins with a second article on the Lycæum Lectures of M. *De la Harpe*, apparently drawn up with as much care, candour, and reflection, as the former; in which the work was brought by M. PELTIER to the lecturer's examination of the literary productions of the
best

best ages of Greece and Rome; and we have now a sketch of the history and state of letters from the time of Augustus to subsequent periods; which *Voltaire* has denominated the Age of Leo Xth and Louis XIVth.

Various poetical, literary, and political articles occur in this number.

No. CXCI. *De la Harpe's* Course of Lectures, third and last extract, treating of orators, historians, and moralists. M. PELTIER concludes his examination of this work with the following warm and spirited eulogy:

'We had already a *course of belles lettres*, and *elements of literature*, works much esteemed for the instruction as well as amusement which they contained:—but we may venture to affirm, that the course of *lectures on antient and modern literature*, of which we have only given a very slight sketch, is indisputably the most complete analysis of every species of literature, its progress, perfection, and the authors, that our nation (France) can boast. It is a classical work, in which genius is assigned its true place, talents are fairly appreciated, and in which the criticisms are as just as the praise, and the decisions as well founded as the principles. It is written with purity, elegance, and force; and the sentiments of the author are noble, elevated, and independant of circumstances. It discovers in the Lycæum-professor such a knowledge of the works of antient and modern authors, such an immense and well-digested erudition, that it ought to be the compass and steerage of our young candidates for literary fame: as it is a code of taste, and the most useful monument which has been erected to the glory of letters.'

The *Poetry* of this number consists of farewell pieces, produced at the last dinner of the Ballad Club; which is dissolved, after having continued three years, and having given birth to more than 400 songs.

No. CXCII. *Literary Articles*.—After the dissolution of the *Ballad-Club*, (which was a dinner-meeting) another society, to be held once in a month, was instituted by some of the same individuals, under the name of the *Ballad-Singer's Supper*. Previously to speaking of this society, M. PELTIER has inserted a little ballad-opera, or farce, the result of six of the members of the new club dining together. Its title is *M. de Bievre*, or the abuse of wit; and it consists of a string of *calembourgs* or puns, which have lately been much *à-la-mode* at Paris, as well as in other national theatres. It occupies more than 30 pages of this number, in which the abuse of wit seems not to be its abundance, but paucity.

No. CXCIII. is chiefly political.

No. CXCIV. *Poetry*.—*End of the xviiith Century*, a Satire.—There could be little doubt that this *Philippic*, which has already gone through several editions, would be much read,

from the number of well-known characters and personalities which it contains. Among the rest, Citizen *La Lande* is not forgotten :

‘ Behold, *La Lande!* bold Titan of our time,
Who heav’n attacks, and all its host sublime.
A pedant vain, whom his own feats surprise,
Who genius deems what memory supplies :
The world fatigues with labours in the clouds,
With stars he ne’er has seen he journals crowds ;
With envy bursting at the fame and gain
Which almanacs procure, foretelling rain *.’

At the theatres, some new political, pantomimical, and operatical pieces have been well received.

VOL. xxv. No. cxcv.—This number begins the new year, with a dissertation on the æra at present in dispute: “on the year 1800, and the period of 3600 years.” The editor regards the dispute as terminated, between the 18th and 19th centuries ; and that the secular year, 1800, has gained the cause.

We have next a very favourable and interesting account of two successful dramas, brought on the stage at Paris about the close of the year 1799: a comedy and a tragedy. The first is a posthumous work, entitled *The Preceptors*, written by the late *Fabre d’Eglantine*. In this play, the pupils remind us of Fielding’s Tom Jones and Blyfil ; and in the Preceptors we perceive many features of Thwackum and Square, though disguised by French manners and ways of thinking.

The tragedy, written by *Lagouvé*, has for title *Etiocles and Polinices*. The author, we are told, though still young, had previously produced three successful dramas: *the Death of Abel*, *Epicharis*, and *Quintus Fabius*. The subject which he has now chosen is that of the *Thebais*, treated in Greek under different names, by Eschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides ; in Latin by Seneca ; in Italian by Ludovico Dolce ; in French by Boyer, Rotrou, and Racine ; and in English by Newton in 1581, under the title of the *Thebais* ; in 1631 by Thomas May, under that of *Antigone* the Theban princess ; in 1729 by George Adams, from Sophocles, under the same title of *Antigone* ; and in 1777 Mr.

* * The news-papers are full of his astronomical predictions: he foretells heat, cold, and the return of the seasons. See a little work of which he is the hero, and which has had the greatest success, entitled “a New-year’s Gift from the National Institute, or a Literary Response for the 7th Year of the Republic.”

In his correspondence with the *Academie de Berlin*, 1782, he says “you may be sure that my Tables are better than those of Halley.” p. 38.—“The corrections which M. *Lambert* has made to them are quackery.”—“Make my complaints to M. *Bode* for not having preserved, in his new Atlas of Flamsted, my constellation of Messier.”

Potter enriched our literature, though not the stage, with his translation of *The Seven Chiefs against Thebes*, from Eschylus. From M. PELTIER's account of the new structure on the ancient foundation, it appears that M. Legouvé has not only availed himself of the admirable simplicity of Euripides in his *Phenicians*, and of the beauties of all the translations and imitations of the Greek tragedians, but has added many of his own, in an elegant and pure style: in which, according to M. P., 'he is pompous without bombast; giving to his plan all the interest of which it is susceptible; to his characters, appropriate colouring; and to his dialogue that elevation and gradation of effect, which the progress of the action required.'

A farce, or little comedy, interspersed with songs, at the Vaudeville or ballad-theatre, written by a junto of wits, has been very successful; and by the sentiment of a municipal officer, who was ordered closely to imprison some ladies who had been seized as hostages, and made responsible for their distant relations, we should suppose that chivalry still subsisted, or was reviving in France.

' In pain and anguish when we sigh,
To whom but females can we fly?
Their care and kindness make us whole,
Suspend our smart and calm the soul.
While ev'ry ill mankind surrounds
With which the universe abounds,
Can we distress and load with woes
The sources whence our comfort flows?

' To imprison knaves of ev'ry kind
Me ever ready you shall find;
For justice and the public's sake
My home I would a dungeon make:
But beings gentle, kind, and fair,
To treat with rigour, who shall dare?
'Ere lock up these, I'd spurn all self—
Unless I with them lock'd myself.'

Oriental MSS. brought from Egypt by Bonaparte. These MSS., three in number, seem to be of little worth. Two of them are in the Persian language, and the third in the Turkish. The title of this last is *Oriental Happiness and the Source of Sovereignty, in the Science of Talismans*. One of the Persian MSS. is a collection of five works by the celebrated Persian poet Adoc-Rahhman-el Djammy:—but we are not told on what subjects these works are written. The other Persian MS. is entitled, *The Conversation of Lovers*. All the praise bestowed on this MS. is, that it has been transcribed on rose paper by an excellent penman.

In the obituary of this number, is announced the decease of five persons whose loss will be long lamented throughout Europe: *Marmontel, Montucla, Prévile, Le Mounier, and Daubenton.*

No. cxcvi. *Fragment of a Latin Poem on the French Revolution.* This poem, and almost every article of this number, are levelled at Bonaparte's usurpation, and his flight from Egypt. The intercepted letters from *Kleber, Poussielgue, Dugua, and Bonaparte himself*, form a considerable part of the number; which is terminated by the second proposal of the French Government to open a negociation for peace; with *Talleyrand's* letter to Lord Grenville, and his Lordship's answer.

No. cxcvii. *Intéret*, a Poem by *Vigée*. The radical vice of self-interest, which can assume such innumerable shapes, has been attacked in all by moralists and satirists, both in prose and verse, to little purpose. It is implanted in every animal, but disguised by none so artfully as by man. It is subdued sometimes by education and a good heart, but is resolved by others into the first law of nature: self-defence. In this poem, we have a string of well-known facts—cases for moral doctors to pour in cathartics, or apply caustics: but we fear that the distemper is incurable, at least by the poetical incantations of Dr. *Vigée*.

Farther Remarks on the Alexandrian Library; which, though we are not allowed to believe that it was burned down, we plainly perceive is to be written down.

Anecdotes of the celebrated Comedian Prévile, lately deceased.

No. cxcviii. This number contains much interesting matter; and there are several articles on which we should wish to dwell, had we room and leisure: but, in order to overtake the editor, with whom we have been so long in arrears, we must necessarily proceed with great brevity.

The first article in this number is a *fragment of a poem*.—*Time* acquaints *Homer*, in a dream, what great men will do him homage, and what poets endeavour to follow his steps. It is a wild rhapsody, and very properly styled a *dream*, of which it has all the incoherence: the author jumping from antient to modern, and from modern to antient times, with visionary rapidity. We should dispute some of his opinions, if he were awake.

A new piece at one of the theatres, entitled the *Beneficent Judge*, has been well received. We have part of a long and laboured examination of the comedy of the *Preceptors*; and an inedited letter from *Diderot* to *Voltaire* on his tragedy of *Tancrede*, and *Voltaire's* answer.—*Literary Anecdotes*: none of which are sufficiently striking to be remembered, except the

the fashion in France for extending *transportation* from the living to the dead: as we are told that citizen *Le Noir*, keeper of the Museum, has obtained permission to *transport* thither the tombs of *Abelard* and *Eloisa*!

No. cxcix. War of the Demi-gods; a burlesque poem, in 6 cantos. This satire seems to have been written (text and notes) in imitation, *pede claudo*, of the Pursuits of Literature. As we are unacquainted with many of the heroes of this Dunciad, we know not with what justice they have been treated by the anonymous author.

Politics. On this division of the work, we have chosen to be silent; and we must now suspend our attention to M. PELTIER's labours, having arrived at the end of the xxvth volume.

ART. VIII. *Voyage Historique, Littéraire, &c. i. e.* Historical, Literary, and Picturesque Travels in the Islands and *ci-devant* Possessions of the Venetian State in the Levant; namely, *Corfu, Paxo, Bucintro, Parga, Prevesa, Vonizza, St. Maure, Thiaqui, Cephalonia, Zante, Strophades, Gerigo, and Ceregotta*. By ANDREW GRASSET SAINT-SAUVEUR, jun. Consul of France, Resident at Corfu, Zante, &c. from the Year 1781 to the 6th Year of the French Republic. 3 Vols. 8vo. and 4to. Atlas. Paris, 1799. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. sewed.

So few remains of antient splendor and high cultivation are now to be found in the islands to which these volumes relate, after having been so often pillaged and in the possession of new masters, that they are become of little value to taste and learning: but they afford an opportunity for pedants to shew their reading, in discovering how often they have been mentioned incidentally by antient authors. Their importance is now almost wholly confined to commerce, and to those powers who have ambitious designs on them. For all other purposes, the work before us is too dry and minute to be amusing; and the places described are scarcely of importance sufficient to excite a wish for instruction concerning their present government, police, cultivation, and degraded state.

It might have been of consequence to France, who had seized, and intended to keep possession of these islands, to know what taxes, requisitions, forced-loans, and conscriptions, the inhabitants could bear: but for unambitious and idle readers, who only seek amusement and topographical knowledge, few oeconomic and political details will suffice.

The author, in his preliminary discourse, complains of the scarcity of materials for the illustration of the antient state of these islands.

‘ Their antiquities have long been insensibly exhausted by the curious, who have enriched their mansions and cabinets with the precious spoils of these countries. A few memoirs have indeed been composed concerning them by persons of erudition: but, unluckily, they have been concealed from the public, with the antiquities which they explain.—Working on the spot, however, with the assistance of antient authors, and such publications of modern writers relative to these islands as I could procure, I did not despair of accomplishing my design.

‘ The first modern book which I found to answer my purpose, was a history of the island of *Corfu* in Italian, published at Venice 1672, under the title of, *Istoria di Corfu, descritta da Andrea Marmora, nobile Corcirese*. The Gothic style and ridiculous reflections of this work did not discourage me; I perused it several times with great attention; and it is from this publication that I took most of the medals, and Greek and Roman inscriptions, which I have inserted in my work.

‘ The second literary assistance which I obtained was a tract of Cardinal *Quirini*, intitled: *Primordia Corcire*; which only treats of the antiquities of the island of *Corfu*. His labours, however, and his profound erudition, were of great use to me.

‘ The third writing, which I procured in MS. with great difficulty, has for title: *Corsi di Penna e Catena di Materie Sopra l'Isola di Cefalonia*, by *Andrea Morosini*, a Venetian nobleman, written in 1628.

‘ The fourth work is by *Balkazar Maria Remondi*, Bishop of Zante and Cephalonia, 1756; written in Latin, and entitled: *De Zacynthi Antiquitatibus et Fortuna Commentarius*.

To fill up this wide chasm in the antient history of these islands, the author has given long extracts from the history of other countries, wholly unconnected with the present subject.

After the preliminary discourse, Book I. contains the natural history of the island of *Corfu*; which, after the loss of *Cyprus*, *Candia*, and the *Morea*, became the principal naval establishment of the Venetian marine in the Levant.—II. Treats of the political state of the island of *Corfu*, under the antient Greeks. This book is divided into nineteen chapters, all compiled from slight materials and gleanings of antient history.—III. Political state of this island under the Romans, thirteen chapters.—IV. Ditto under the Grecian empire.—V. Under the Kings of Naples.—VI. Under the Venetians. This seems to be the most interesting book, and composed of the most authentic materials.—Book VII. Vol. II. Contains the state of the island of *Corfu* under the Venetians, from the last siege by the Turks, to the taking possession of the island by the French; fifteen chapters.—VIII. Physical and political state of the islands of *Paxo*, *Bucintro*, and *Parga*, dependant on *Corfu*.—IX. Physical and political state of *Privesa*, *Vonizza*, and

and *St. Maure*.—Book X. Vol. III. Physical and political state of the islands of *Thiaqui* and *Cephalonia*.—XI. Physical and political state of the islands of *Zante* and the *Strophades*; twelve chapters.—XII. and last, contains the physical and political state of *Cerigo* and the Rock *Ceregotta*.

The table of contents only of the first volume, which (together with nearly the whole of vol. ii.) is entirely confined to the island of *Corfu*, would extend our article to too great a length. We shall, however, give the contents of the first two chapters of the first book, as specimens of the author's arrangement of his materials, and of his minute descriptions in the rest of the work.

The first chapter, under the title of 'The Natural History of *Corfu*,' treats of the situation, extent, canal, small islands, rocks, anchorage, winds, climate, rivers, marble quarries, coal-pits, mines of sulphur, mineral waters, earthquakes, productions, wood, hunting, fishing, coral, animals, fruits, vegetables, and population.

The second chapter contains a description of the city of *Corfu*, its fortresses, residence of the purveyor or superintendant of provisions for the fortress, statue of Count Schulenburg, armory, barracks of the Sclavonian and Italian troops, residence of the purveyor-general, apartments of the officers of administration, magazines, port of the galleys, force, powder magazines, dykes, prisons, cisterns, parades, ramparts, military hospital, new fortress, Roman catholic cathedral, convents, episcopal palace, road for shipping, small islands, synagogue.

In speaking of these islands under the antient Greeks, the author relates events and circumstances in the antient history which are so well known to every school-boy, that even common readers of the work must be surprized at their insertion; and when under the Venetians, the islands were inhabited, cultivated, and governed, in so similar a manner, that they afforded little variety of description.

The island of *ZANTE* (*olim Zacynthus*), which occupies a considerable part of the third volume, seems to afford the most amusing articles. This, like the other Greek Islands, passed from the antient Greek republic to the Roman, from the Roman to the Greek empire, from that power to the Turks, and from the Turks to the Venetians. The inhabitants were converted to Christianity by St. Veronica. The established religion was that of the Greek church under the Venetians; though there is a nominal Roman catholic bishop, and with a cathedral: but few of the inhabitants are diocesans of that church; the generality being dependant on a Protopapa, suffragan

ragan of the Archbishop of Cephalonia. For the antient state of this island, the author has given every scrap of intelligence to be found in the Greek poets and historians.

Few antiquities remain in this island that are of any value. A tomb, with two or three unknown names in Greek capitals, is indeed now and then discovered; and what the author says of the paucity of antiquities in *Cerigo*, (*Cytherea*,) will apply to all the rest of these islands: 'there remain here but few inconsiderable vestiges to illustrate its antient splendor: no inscription, and seldom a medal, of which the study might supply, in part at least, the want of annals.'

From his description of the customs and manners of the people of Zante under the Venetians, we might be led to think that the author had never been in Italy, nor read the journals of travellers through that country: since he mentions as new and extraordinary what is common and general, not only in Venice, but in every other Italian capital. The comedy which he describes, with Harlequin and Brighello, who speak the Bergamasque jargon; Pantaleone and his daughter Colombine, the Venetian; and Il Dottore the Bolognese; is wholly Italian:—as are the *Opre Buffe*, or comic operas, of which he speaks; and the horse-races in the streets, called *corsi*.

The author is not a lively narrator, nor does he often select for narration what is worthy to be related: but, in vol. ii. p. 41. we find a nuptial feast described, which, the author assures us, is such a ceremonial as is performed in the country, *à la Grec*, and not after the Italian manner, as in the city where Venetian customs prevail; we shall therefore present a part of it to our readers:

'These alliances are wholly arranged by the parents, on a principle of interest, in the way of bargain, without consulting the inclinations of the young persons, or even letting them see each other. When the agreement is made, the father of the female counts the dowry to the father of the intended bridegroom; and a few days afterward, accompanied by his relations, he makes his first visit to the lady; who, surrounded by her family, modestly receives his addresses. He presents her a jewel, and embraces her; and the sacred decree is irrevocably pronounced. This visit is followed by two others in the same ceremonial, and always accompanied by a new present. The spouses have each of them two parents, or friends, to give them away, and to bear testimony to the union; and they are present at all the visits, and sign the contract. These assistants are generally chosen among the most opulent friends of the young couple, and it is expected that they will make presents, and in future times patronize and assist them as relations, in any emergency.

'The ceremony is performed in the house of the bride. A table is prepared in the best room, on which the evangelists are placed between two wax-candles. On one side, on a saucer, are placed a
glass,

glass, a small phial filled with wine, and a piece of bread; on another saucer, two crowns or coronets made of cotton, ornamented with rose-colour ribands. The parents, witnesses, and friends of the bride and bridegroom are ranged round the room; the bride in the centre close to her mother and nearest female relations. All the married women are placed on each side, according to their degree of affinity; The young maidens are in another room. As soon as the *papa*, or priest, arrives, he puts on his sacerdotal vestments before the assembly, and places himself at the table; distributing lighted tapers (having blessed them) to the young couple, and to the sponsors. The bridegroom then takes his spouse, and places himself with her behind the priest, each of them taking hold of his vestment; the witnesses following their example. The ceremony being ended according to the rites of the Greek church, the two tapers of the bride and bridegroom are formed into a crown interwoven together; and, the two ends being united, they are placed on the tester of the nuptial bed. The union of the flames is emblematical of the affection which ought ever to subsist between the married pair. The *papa* then retired, after having received testimonies of liberality from the married couple and their sponsors. In conformity to a sacred custom, the bride wept at the moment of union: whether from grief at quitting her parents, or from the joy which Hymen inspires; perhaps from both. The mother and relations likewise weep, and accompany their tears with praises and exhortations: this was not the most agreeable part of the festival. However, the whole village rang with acclamations; fire-works were played off; and demonstrations of joy of every kind were manifested by the inhabitants. The bride, between her mother and nearest relations, walked to the mansion of her husband, who came out to receive her. She was followed by a numerous train of women and peasants, and was preceded by a hautbois and drum, which accompanied the dances of two young persons, each holding the corner of a handkerchief. Arrived at length at the new residence, the bride is handed in by her spouse at the head of all his family;—and then, tears, compliments, and exhortations, were renewed.

A chapter then follows, respecting funeral solemnities in Zante; which are extraordinary, and offensive to the common feelings of humanity in other countries.—The English, who have a Consul and a factory in this island, are allowed a cemetery in a very romantic and picturesque situation, to receive the remains of such of their countrymen as are prevented by death from returning home. It is a square piece of ground inclosed with a wall. A *papa*, or Grecian priest, has the care of it, who does duty in a small chapel dedicated to St. George; and all the English traders contribute by a tax to his subsistence.

From a passage in Athenæus (lib. iv.) the antient inhabitants of Zacynthus are supposed to have cultivated Music with great ardour; and it is an art which was always held in the highest estimation by the Greeks in general. Zacyn-
thus

thus had its Orpheus; and we are told that the celebrated musician, Pythagoras the Zacynthian, who had rendered himself illustrious by his performance on the lyre, had invented a new instrument of a very peculiar construction. It resembled the Tripods consecrated in the temple of Delphos; it was fixed on a pivot; and the intervals between the feet were strung and wrought with as much taste as science. Pythagoras, placed on a seat made expressly for the purpose, pinched the strings with his left hand, while with his right he touched them with a plectrum (not a bow); making use of his feet in turning the instrument different ways, at his pleasure, and producing by turns melody from the three different modes, Dorian, Lydian, and Phrygian, to which the three sides were turned*. This curious invention died with its author, either from the difficulty of its construction, or from his neglecting to communicate the mysteries of his art to others. Aristoxenus†, in speaking of Agenor of Mytelene, who had produced many valuable musical works, thought that he could not exalt his character more than by comparing him to Pythagoras the Zacynthian.

The music of the present natives of this island seems to be somewhat degenerated. M. ST. SAUVEUR, speaking of their parties of pleasure in the country, tells us that they were always terminated by a dance to the sound of a rude violin, and a lyre (certainly not that of Orpheus). Sometimes these two instruments are played in duo. The music then, as noisy as dissonant, corresponds exactly with the transports of the dancers; who are already exhilarated by the bounty of Bacchus: but if, unluckily, to this band be added a kind of coarse hautbois, and a side-drum, they sound a sudden retreat to all those who have ears well organized.

The island of Zante, in lat. 37° 53', is 24 miles long, and 12 broad. Its population is from 40 to 50,000. It yields, among other fruits, the finest peaches in the world; some of which weigh eight to ten ounces:—but its chief produce for exportation consists in currants (*Raisins de Corinthe*), which abound, by cultivation, in all these islands. Cephalonia alone produces annually a prodigious quantity of this fruit.—It may be asked why this small species of grape should not be cultivated in our hot-houses, which may so easily be kept at the same temperature as the atmosphere of Cephalonia or Zante? As the larger vines are brought to a greater degree

* If we mistake not, we have a representation and description of this instrument in Dr. Burney's *History of Music*.

† Lib. ii.

of perfection for the table, by our stoves, than in any other part of Europe without artificial heat, it seems probable that, with similar assistance, we might rival the Greek islands in the quality, though not in the quantity of Corinthian grapes. They are pruned in March, preserving the strongest shoots, and destroying all that prey on the vine to no purpose.

Earthquakes are very common in all these islands, but in none more than in Zante. The direction of the shocks is from the N. W. to the S. E.; and they are generally preceded by a violent N. W. wind, which often continues for many days. No change in the atmosphere is observable. The shocks which have destroyed Lisbon, and have lately been so calamitous in Calabria, have been felt at the same hour in all these islands, but especially in Zante. The periods of these terrific times, and the destruction which they have occasioned, are recorded.—It has been remarked that there is a regular return of these calamities at the end of every twenty-five years; and that, in these intervals, no very violent commotion has happened. These calculations, and the dread which they occasion, appear to have been but too well founded.

On the 2d of November 1790, (says the author,) at nine o'clock at night, while the wind almost insensible was to the S., the atmosphere inflamed, and extremely loaded with vapours, the air heavy, and oppressively hot, there happened at Zante one of the most dreadful shocks of an earthquake on record. It came on instantaneously in a vertical direction, but was followed by very quick undulations from the S. E. to the N. W. It lasted many minutes. This shock was not felt with equal violence all over the island; and its varieties, as astonishing as terrible, were marked by its effects. The western part of the island received no damage: but all the habitations built on eastern elevations, particularly the fortresses, were wholly destroyed, together with six villages situated at the foot of the mountains. There was not a house in the capital of the island which escaped being much damaged; and a great number were totally crushed. It was observed that those buildings, which had suffered most, were situated on the lowest ground, and were formed of the most solid materials and masonry; while others of two and three stories above the ground-floor, and lately built, received no damage. Square pilasters, supporting an advanced roof, have been seen turned on their axes. A wall four feet thick, and six in height, was turned topsy-turvy, and in a manner reduced to powder, near mortarless old walls in which not a stone was displaced. In many places on the sea-shore, the earth opened. During the eight or ten days subsequent to this shock, the sea was frightfully calm. The air continued equally heavy; and the thick vapours, with which the atmosphere was loaded, remained undissipated. The sun was very pale, and its heat was intolerable. People breathed with great difficulty, especially in the great square of the city, where the stench of sulphur was extremely strong. Every day produced many shocks, but

but happily they did not cause the dreadful effects which there was reason to fear, while all the foundations were shaken and the walls cracked by the first commotion. Twenty persons were killed and thirty wounded by the ruins; and terror caused the death of many sick people and pregnant women. The city of Zante presented a frightful spectacle: men, women, and children, quitting their houses, and running about in the utmost horror, they knew not whither.—The shocks continued more than six weeks, but with diminished force. I was obliged to pass my whole time in the open air; my house was extremely damaged; and I lost the greatest part of my furniture and effects. All the fruits of the island were destroyed; and it was with the utmost difficulty that necessaries were procured from the Morea, where the plague raged, and almost cut off all communication.

It is proved, says M. ST. SAUVEUR, that the island of Cephalonia abounds with medicinal plants: one in particular, which has been found to be a specific for the gout. Of its efficacy, several cases are described, in which the remedy has proved infallible. The patients are named, and the case is authenticated: but we have neither the name of the plant, nor the manner of preparing or administering it. The mystery in which this remedy is enveloped throws suspicion on its virtues. A large premium and pension for life are required by the discoverer, before he will disclose his secret; and we do not hear that the *Great Nation* seemed inclined to comply with these demands, while in possession of that island.

This work not only offers a cure for the gout in grown gentlemen, but for the rickets in children,—for diseases in other animals,—and for every thing,—in the use of tar-water, mentioned as a new discovery. There are springs of pitch and tar in the island of Zante, which M. ST. SAUVEUR has described very minutely, with the quantity which they produce, and the manner of procuring and disposing of it: but he dwells chiefly on the medicinal power of tar, not seeming to know what a panacea tar-water was deemed in England 40 or 50 years ago.—When we reflect how many specifics have lost their efficacy, and are neglected and forgotten, it must (or should) make us cautious of hastily adopting the numerous new and infallible remedies for which there is a sudden vogue or passion. It may not only be asked at present, what is become of the virtue of tar-water—but of Moor's worm-powder—of lime-water—soap-pills—Ward's drop and pill—Hill's water-dock, tincture of valerian, pectoral balsam of honey—Buzaglaö—magnetism—&c. &c.?

In speaking of the decay of the Venetian commonwealth, its commerce, and power, no notice is taken by the author of the League of Cambray, which stript it of its most valuable possessions.

possessions. A chapter in the third volume relates to the commerce of Venice with France, while she was in possession of that city and her territories; which might have been very useful to the Gallic republic, had she not transferred the chief of these possessions to Austria.

The Atlas contains a quarto map of the Greek islands,—four plates of medals relative to the antient state of these classical countries in times of their greatest glory—portraits of the natives of several of these islands in their modern dress,—and views of the principal cities.

We entered on this work with a considerable degree of curiosity and expectation; and though we cannot say that we have been thoroughly gratified, the reader will find in it some amusement, and some information.

ART. IX. *Relation du Voyage à la Recherche de la Pérouse, &c. &c.*
 Account of a Voyage in search of *la Pérouse*, undertaken by Order of the Constituent Assembly, during the Years 1791, 1792, and during the 1st and 2d Years of the French Republic. By Citizen LABILLARDIERE, Correspondent of the *ci-devant* Academy of Sciences at Paris, and one of the Naturalists sent on the Expedition. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 440 each, and Folio Atlas of Plates. Paris. 1799. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 3l. 3s. An Edition in 4to. Price 6l. 6s.

IN February 1791, the Constituent Assembly of France decreed that the King should be requested to cause one or more vessels to be equipped, for the double purpose of searching after *M. de la Pérouse*, according to documents and instructions which should be given, and of making researches relative to science and to commerce. In consequence, two ships were fitted out; and they were named *La Recherche*, and *L'Espérance*; the former carrying 113, the latter 106 men (astronomers, naturalists, and other men of science, included). The command of the expedition was given to General *Dentrecasteaux*. The ships were stored with eighteen months' provisions, and with a large stock of those articles which have been found most useful in voyages to the Pacific Ocean. The writer of the journal before us, M. LABILLARDIERE, embarked as a naturalist; and the collections of natural history which he made during the voyage were brought by the chances of war to England: but in consequence of application from the French to the British Government, they were restored, which greatly assisted the author in drawing up the present account. No one can forget the example of liberality which the French had set us in this respect.

The

The ships departed from Brest, September 28, 1791. So many were eager to embark on this expedition, that, after they were under sail, seamen who did not belong to the crews were found concealed in each ship. They were sent on shore, lest the vessels should be too much crowded: but others were discovered after they were out of sight of land, who in course were permitted to make the voyage.

As the greater part of this expedition is over beaten ground, we shall be very brief in our account, excepting where we meet with circumstances which appear to us more particularly to require notice.—The ships having stopped at Teneriffe, a large party, of which the writer formed one, went to visit the peak; and the appearances created by the clouds are thus described:

‘The clouds, which gathered round the mountains beneath us, appeared blended with the waters of the ocean, and hid from our view the rest of the island. The sky above was perfectly clear. The Peak, of itself, seemed to be an island surrounded by an immense ocean. Our figures were reflected on the clouds beneath on the side opposite to the sun, and appeared decked with the finest colours of the rainbow.’

After ninety-two years had passed without any volcanic eruption in Teneriffe, a new volcano burst open on the south-west side of the Peak. The following short account of it is given, as related by the Consul of the French Republic:

‘On the 21st *Prairial*, August 6th, the inhabitants of St. Croix were alarmed by noises resembling the sound of cannon at a distance. During the night, a slight shock of an earthquake was felt; and on the next morning, eruptions appeared on the S. W. of the Peak. During the first days, fifteen openings were counted: but, by the end of the month, their number was reduced to two; whence great pieces of rock were continually thrown with such force, as to preserve their original direction frequently fifteen seconds before they fell to the earth.’

An account is given of winds, currents, and the particulars of the navigation to the Cape of Good Hope, where the ships arrived on the 17th of January 1792. Gen. *Dentrecasteaux* found letters waiting for him from the Governor of the Isle of France, to communicate depositions which had been made by two commanders of merchant-ships, and which seemed to afford some clue towards discovering the fate of *M. de la Pérouse* and his companions. These depositions mention that, after the loss of the English frigate *Syrius*, on Norfolk Island, Capt. Hunter and his ship's company embarked from Botany Bay in a Dutch vessel; that, in their passage to Batavia, they were carried by currents to the eastward as far as the Admiralty Isles; that, from the easternmost of these, some canoes came
near

near them, but did not venture on board; that many of the natives were dressed with pieces of European cloth; and that on two of them was distinguished the uniform of the French marine. On account of the rocks and currents, the Dutch captain did not choose to make a nearer approach to the land.

—One of the depositions adds that Capt. Hunter, with whom the deponent conversed on the subject, had been informed by *M. de la Pérouse* that it was his intention to pass through the straits of St. George; and that Capt. Hunter was of opinion, that the *Boussole* and *Astrolabe* were wrecked on the Admiralty Islands. Capt. Hunter and his officers were in a ship lying at the Cape, at the time when Gen. *Dentrecasteaux* entered the bay: but they were on the point of sailing, and actually departed two hours after the French ships anchored; and unluckily without any communication having passed. So far was the matter contained in the depositions from being confirmed by any thing which had fallen from Capt. Hunter at the Cape, that, on the contrary, he had denied all knowledge of the facts alleged in the reports circulated by the frigate which brought the dispatches from the Isle of France. The depositions, however, determined the French commander to visit the Admiralty Isles as early as he possibly could.

The writer made several excursions to the mountains and plantations near the Cape town, an account of which he relates at length.

Having sailed from the Cape, on the 28th of March they were near the island of Amsterdam, which the author calls the island of St. Paul; following, he says, the example of Capt. Cook in calling the northernmost of the two islands St. Paul. We have examined the charts of Capt. Cook's voyages, in which we find the islands named as by *Valming*, the original discoverer.

On the passage from the Cape to Van Diemen's Land, *M. LABILLARDIERE* remarks that it is usual, on leaving the Cape, to steer towards the south, with the view of obtaining westerly winds. The route, he observes, is lengthened: but, at sea, it is not always by following the shortest road that we arrive the soonest. The writer's seamanship is not at all times correct; and in this instance he appears not to have known, or not to have recollected, that the shortest distance is formed by sailing on an arch of a great circle. Indeed, we should not expect much nautical knowledge from a naturalist who is professedly no seaman: but we observe that he has frequently introduced more of the subject than was necessary to the narrative. He says; 'My journal, kept with care during the whole course of the voyage, contained many nautical observations, but in

this particular would have been very incomplete without the assistance furnished me by one of the best officers of the expedition, *Citizen Legrand.* After this, it is certainly fair to place unnecessary or mistaken seamanship to the account of the author's own observations.

At the island of Amsterdam, the forests were observed to be in flames in several places, but whether from subterranean fire, or effected by the hands of men, the author could not determine. At Van Diemen's Land, through a mistake of one of the officers, the General being then ill, they anchored in Storm Bay, instead of Adventure Bay. This, however, was a fortunate circumstance, since it led to the discovery of a new navigable passage to the N. E. ; the land forming the east side of Storm Bay, and including Adventure Bay, being separate from the rest of Van Diemen's Land. The ships sailed through this strait, which was named after the commander, and came into an open sea to the north of Adventure Bay. During the latter part of their stay at Van Diemen's Land, they met several of the natives, who were friendly and well disposed ;—and they shot some black swans, of which bird the author gives the following description :

‘ It is rather larger than the European swan, and as finely formed. Its colour is a glossy black, but with six large white feathers in each wing. The beak of the upper mandible is red, with a transverse whitish streak near the extremity. A swelling was observed in the lower part, forming two protuberances, but which in the female is scarcely perceptible. The inferior mandible is red towards the edges, and white underneath. The feet are of a dark grey.’

They left Van Diemen's Land on the 29th of May, and on June 16th they saw the eastern part of New Caledonia. They coasted the whole length of the S. W. side of this island without obtaining anchorage, or the least intercourse with the natives ; and, in the same manner, several groupes of small islands were passed. At length, July 15th, being near the island of Bouka, some canoes came towards them, but none ventured on board the General's ship. With *L'Espérance* they were less reserved. One canoe contained forty people, sixteen of whom were employed in paddling ; the rest were armed with bows and arrows, and regularly stationed in different parts of the canoe. These Indians are described as having been greatly delighted with the music of a violin. It does not appear that any inquiries, by signs or otherwise, were here made respecting the principal object of the voyage.—The ships passed through the strait formed by the coasts of New Ireland and New Britain ; and on the 28th July, they were in sight of the Admiralty Islands, the proposed grand point of research. *M. Dentracas-*

taur now sent an officer on board *l'Espérance*, to consult with her Captain on the best method of prosecuting their inquiries at these islands. We will not suppose that this was the first consultation which took place on this subject; yet here we must remark that, with one specific object in view, (for subjects of philosophy and science could only be considered as incidental, or at most as secondary,) no regular plan of inquiry appears to have been formed, nor to have been deemed previously necessary for the attainment of that end. The instructions under which *M. Dentrecasteaux* sailed are not in the account before us: but the depositions received at the Cape of Good Hope appear to have determined his route to the Admiralty Islands; and the advanced season of the year made him prefer going to the south of New Holland. Proceeding in this direction, they might, without any loss of time, have called at the English settlement in *New South Wales* for the chance of obtaining some intelligence. The latest information respecting *M. de la Pérouse's* ships, which has ever been gained, was their sailing from that place; and the plan which he then proposed to pursue, as appears by his letters to France, was to visit New Caledonia and the *Terre des Arsacides*; to pass between New Holland and New Guinea, and to visit the Gulf of Carpentaria. After New Holland, therefore, New Caledonia ought to have been the first place of inquiry, and should not have been so easily passed for the sake of a plan which might have been better executed afterward. If *M. Dentrecasteaux* had stopped at New Caledonia, and had engaged some of the natives to accompany him not only thence, but from other places as he proceeded, he would have been provided with interpreters by whose assistance his inquiries might have been directed with advantage; and it is probable that, from some of the interpreters themselves, as they became better understood, important intelligence might have been obtained. These people could have been afterward returned to their respective islands; which would have required no more in the original plan, than what Gen. *Dentrecasteaux*, as it happened, thought it necessary to perform, *i. e.* the going round New Holland a second time; and the additional prospect of success would surely have been a sufficient compensation for the trouble.

July 29th, the ships approached the easternmost of the Admiralty Islands, which appeared well cultivated and inclosed. A number of canoes were on the beach, but the natives shewed no disposition to launch them. At half past one in the afternoon, being to leeward of the island, which

was of too small extent to afford much shelter, a boat was sent from each ship.

‘ Being arrived within a hundred yards of the shore, no bottom was found with thirty-five fathoms of line. A great number of the natives came down to the water-side, and by gestures invited us to land: but the reefs were an obstacle not to be surmounted. The islanders threw us some cocoa-nuts, and appeared pleased and astonished in seeing with what facility they were opened with a hatchet. A savage, distinguished from the rest by ornaments of little shells, appeared likewise to possess great authority. He ordered a native to swim to the boats with cocoa nuts. The fear of approaching strangers, of whose intentions he was ignorant, made him hesitate: but the chief, doubtless not much accustomed to have his commands disputed, gave him little time for reflection; several blows with a stick, which he himself applied, closely followed his orders, and he was obeyed without farther delay. We gave to this savage, for consolation, some scraps of red cloth, some nails, and a knife, which he received with great joy. On his return, every one appeared desirous of obtaining a share of our presents. Canoes were immediately launched, other natives swam off to us, and in a short time we had a great concourse round our boats.’—‘ At first they scrupled to take open knives from us, but their suspicions soon vanished, and they were glad to receive them anyway. In exchange for our things, they gave us lances, bracelets, &c.’

At four o'clock, the boats, according to the orders which had been given, returned to the ships. The natives seemed sorry for their departure, and renewed the invitations for them to land. The women, who till then had kept among the trees at a distance, likewise advanced, and by signs joined in inviting them.—This little island, the author says, is nearly of a circular form, and its length is about two miles and a half: it is well peopled.

On the next day, the ships were distant from the land, and no intercourse appears to have taken place: but early on the following morning, (the 31st,) they were within three *kilomètres* (about half a league) of the central islands. One of these is described to be mountainous and of some extent. They several times tried for soundings, but found no bottom with eighty fathoms of line. Many canoes came from the land; and, after much invitation, and several presents being given to them by means of a plank, they ventured to come close to the ships. They were very eager and honest in making exchanges. They preferred iron to every other substance that was offered them.

At half past ten in the forenoon, the ships made sail to the westward; and on the next day they passed the westernmost of this ‘ little Archipelago.’ ‘ We did not see,’ says the author,

author, 'in the possession of these islanders, any effects which had belonged to Europeans.'

This is the sum of what we find in the narrative respecting the search made at the Admiralty Islands, for *M. de la Pérouse* and his unfortunate companions. European navigators have frequently, in a few days' continuance of friendly intercourse, acquired so much of the language of islanders in these seas, with which they were before wholly unacquainted, as to render communication very practicable: but, so unprovided as were these navigators with the means of making inquiry, what information, unless accident had presented any, could have been obtained in a visit so transient? From the appearance of the Admiralty Islands, as represented in one of the Plates, (No. 2.) we should judge that the probability was in favour of their affording anchorage. No bottom being found by sounding in the ship, at the distance of half a league, is not a circumstance unfavourable to that supposition: because there are very few of the islands in the South Seas, at which soundings can be obtained so far from the shore. We do not find in the narrative any reason for believing that boats were sent in search of anchorage; nor at all from the ships, except at the small island, the easternmost of the groupe, as already related.

The ships passed other small islands, and canoes came near them, but nothing interesting occurred. They then sailed along the north coast of New Guinea, and on September 6th anchored at Amboyna. Here they were received in a friendly manner, and with less formality than it had been customary for the Dutch to observe towards the ships of other nations at their settlements in these seas.

Two translations of this work are advertized.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. X. *Le Dix-huit Brumaire, &c. i. e.* The Eighteenth of Brumaire, (8th November, 1799;) or, An Account of the Events which produced the Transactions of that Day. To which are added, Anecdotes concerning the principal Persons then in Place, &c. 8vo. pp. 431. Paris, 1799. London, imported by De Boffe. Price 6s.

THE writer who undertakes to influence the public mind, respecting the judgment which it forms of so important a measure as a revolution, overlooks the arts of authorship, and claims to be judged by the talents which he displays, the views which he unfolds, and the information which he communicates; above all, by his success in his object. If he secures this last point, he will little regard any criticisms on his work as a literary performance; nay, he may follow Mr. Burke's example, and con-

vert any attack of this kind into an argument in favour of the justice of his cause; if, even when exhibited not to the best advantage, it is able to gain the general suffrage. A claim of this sort the present author may fairly set up; and it may seem to furnish a valid plea to our jurisdiction, and to remove the cause from our tribunal: but, perhaps, the public will be better pleased if, like other courts, we make a rule which shall extend our jurisdiction so as to embrace a case that does not seem, in strictness, to come within it.

The author states the object of his work to be, 'to demonstrate the indispensable necessity, and the incalculable value, of the 18th Brumaire (8th November 1798*)'; to investigate the remote causes which prepared it, and to treat of them at some length.' These events are too important in themselves, and seem too big with consequences, not to excite in every inquisitive mind a very lively interest; an interest which is still farther heightened by the stress laid on them in a late very weighty discussion in the British Legislature.

The writer founds his arguments in favour of this revolution, on the vices of the constitution of the year 3, on the practical mischiefs to which these actually gave rise, and on the malversations of those who were entrusted with the administration of the government under it. The constitution is said to have been vicious in four grand points.

1st, The qualifications for the elective franchise were too low and vague. This occasioned the base of the republic to be placed on a moving and volcanic foundation. The consequence, we are told, was that, for the whole hierarchy of public employments, the selections had been the worst and most improper, in some districts most disgraceful, in others horrible; hence bad laws, and bad measures of administration; and hence the proprietors, the strength and real support of the state, were reduced to the condition of helots, vegetating under a sort of proscription, or civil interdict.

* France (he says) can only subsist under any form of government, as far as that government protects with all its force, and guarantees with all its power, *the right of property*; as far as it encompasses it with favour, partiality, encouragement, and religious inviolability.'

The second vice lay in the annual election of one-third of the deputies, and other public functionaries. This event was always preceded by six months of cabal and intrigue. It was impossible that any body politic, however sound and robust, could stand a political fever of this length in each year. English advocates for annual parliaments should read what a republican writer says on this head.

* The formation of the Consulate under *Bonaparte*.

3dly, The number of legislators in the Council of Five Hundred was too great; hence an endless multiplicity of laws, which were every day proposed with urgency, though there existed already between 25 and 30,000 laws promulgated in the same way. Their sessions had no break; hence no opportunity was given for heats to subside, and for calm to restore itself: but, on the contrary, passions grew more warm, and the factions more violent.

4thly, The Executive Government was faulty on two accounts. *First*, It wanted an union of relations with the Legislative Authority. Here the author is very subtle, if not mysterious. He distinguishes between the powers and the depositaries of them. The framers of the constitution, according to him, should have applied the principle of division not to the powers but to the depositaries. He would have the powers subsist not distinctly, but in intimate combination; ingrained, as it were, one in the other. *Secondly*, The Executive was faulty as it was collective, and annually, in part, rotatory. Hence its resolutions were not sufficiently expeditious, its action had not the necessary celerity, and its proceedings wanted uniformity. The number of shares in the supreme authority gave life to a greater mass of faction; and the number of functionaries deprived the qualifications for single candidates of their due weight.—The author pleads the cause of executive unity: but his chief magistrate is elective, holds his place for a time, and, in certain cases, is subject to be deprived of it before the legal period of quitting it arrives.

Severe as are the writer's animadversions on the constitution itself, yet, when speaking of its framers, he displays candor which does him credit. He shews that its faults did not originate with them, but were those of the times and circumstances. 'They made,' he says, 'great strides towards a regenerating and conservatory system, for which they have strong claims to public gratitude.'

The author admits also, that the first days of this constitution were bright and promising; that the difficult and delicate business of the paper-money was managed with address; and that energy was shewn in the suppression of the conspiracies. He says that the tigers of 1793 were muzzled; that the republic had ceased to be their prey; and that authority lay chiefly in the hands of wise, moderate, and upright men. The revolution seemed to have reached its end, and to lose itself in the results to which it had given rise. Wounds were healing. Agriculture began to resume its productive activity. Confidence brought specie to light, and gave it a circulation which animated the labours of industry, and the speculations of

commerce. The past, which had been so productive of misfortunes, was vanishing fast from recollection; and the future, rich in benefits, seemed already present. It was, for every citizen, for the whole social body, a new existence.—Thus auspiciously, says the author, dawned this short-lived government. How came the political horizon to darken? Whence arose the storms and convulsions which so soon brought on dissolution? We shall give an abstract of the author's answer to these queries.

While thus prosperous, we were on the eve of the first elections. These, however, passed off in the best manner; they were no where controuled; they were universally conducted with decency; and the impression which they made on the public mind was favourable to national prosperity. One circumstance of great moment must not be overlooked. Not one of the partisans of the late tyranny was returned to the councils, or elected to any place of trust; so general was the abhorrence with which it was recollected:—nay, in some districts, this sentiment was carried to the length of occasioning avowed royalists to be elected, men in league with the chiefs of the fugitives, men who had themselves emigrated. These returns, though few in number, excited alarm, which would have been greater, had not a hope been entertained that, as there were in the legislature several partisans of the anarchical factions, these extreme parties would balance each other. The royalist deputies forwarded their plans under the cover of specious measures; and the laws which gave offence were such as exceeded a good object rather than aimed at a bad one, were more unreasonable than materially faulty.—It was not yet too late to prevent a crisis; the constitutionalists, who were by far the majority, had only to clear their ranks of those few disguised royalists by whom they were misled; and who, when separated, would have been a nullity, marked either as traitors, or forced to act within the limits of the popular trust which they had undertaken. Had the constitutionalists acted thus, their own sense of things, would have suggested measures which would have consolidated the government, restored harmony between the authorities, and tranquilized the public mind. This is what would have happened, but for the obstacles which the jacobin faction threw in the way; its partisans had seen the error into which the unsuspecting majority had been led for a moment by artifice; and they resolved to profit by it. Did they see a disposition to return to right counsels? They took care to check it, and to throw every impediment in its way. Now was the moment to regain their lost power. Another election was at hand, which would have proved a death-blow to their hopes. They resolved, before a period so fatal to their interests arrived, to change entirely the state of affairs, and to give a complete turn to the public mind. They alleged an imaginary conspiracy, in order to form and execute a real one. A minority in the councils, and three directors, took the lead in the plot: but the directors had particular views; and they laboured to turn the revolution to their own advantage exclusively, and to get into their own hands the whole

whole power of the state: in which, ultimately, they fully succeeded.

Such is the substance of this author's account of the 18th Fructidor (4th September 1798). He is explicit in declaring that the defeated party, with a few exceptions of no signification, had no ill intentions, and that the aggressors were the sole conspirators; he cannot believe that *Carnot*, who had rendered such services to the republic, could possibly have engaged in a conspiracy to restore a king who never could have forgiven him.

The author sketches the effects of this horrible day with a bold and glowing pencil. The constitution was a wreck, and there was no national representation; deputies there were, but the guarantee was gone,—the first magistracy was fallen with the constitution by which it existed; five men there were, not invested, but armed with the whole power, exercising a tyranny as jealous and degrading as ever oppressed a people. All that distinguishes social life disappeared instantaneously from the soil of France, and nothing was to be seen but the hideous and poisonous fruit of lawless domination. The caverns of the Jacobins were opened, and the anarchical code of 1793 was exhumed, and recommended to the acceptance of the people. This not suiting the Pentarchs, the clubs were once more suppressed: but this did not prevent the elections from being every where in favour of the disorganizers. The directors of the 22d Floreal, (11th May,) however, were the same as those of the 18th Fructidor, (4th September;) and they shut the doors of the councils against such deputies as they disliked. This stretch of power was popular, because the Jacobins were the immediate sufferers.—According to our author, the 18th Fructidor was 'the assassination of the constitution; the 22d Floréal, an outrage done to a dead carcass.'

The malversations of the Directory wrought its downfall.

'Acting under its instructions, (says the writer,) we saw the French plenipotentiaries at Rastadt canvassing the great interests of society and humanity, as shuffling advocates discuss the petty claims of individuals. While the congress sat, the new coalition was formed. The cabinet of the Luxemburgh, the conduct of which contributed most evidently to provoke it, took no steps of prevention, and were wholly unprepared to resist. The tragedy, which closed the congress, had scarcely taken place, before the Austrians and Russians menaced the French frontier. A weak and profligate administration had squandered away all our means; we had no arms, artillery, provisions, nor money. A few decades hurled the republic from a position the most brilliant, to the most imminent danger.'

The Jacobins, who had been discomfited on the 22d Floréal, saw their opportunity; they put themselves in action; and they

they were joined by men of a better cast, whom the incapacity and the crimes of the government had roused. The 30th of Prairial (18th June) was brought about, and three directors were displaced. The anarchists were in too much credit not to have the clubs revived; and soon did the Manege at Paris, and similar societies in the departments, display the fury characteristic of this monstrous sect; its partizans on this occasion resembled, says our author, 'tigers who perceive their prey; cannibals, tumultuously dancing around their palpitating victims.' These dens were again shut up, but the party was still busy; the demand for the blood of the ex-directors, and the motion to declare the country in danger, proceeded from this restless quarter, and were intended as introductory to a revolutionary regimen.—If this writer may be credited, the Jacobin party, on the very eve of the 18th Brumaire, were arranging a conspiracy; the object of which was to subvert the constitution, to form the two councils into one assembly, to put to death *Sieyes* and *Ducos*, to declare *Bonaparte* an outlaw, and to guillotine the inspectors of the two councils.

The author arraigns the conduct of the Directory, in relation to allied and neutral powers. The seizure of the ships of America, and the attempt to sow dissension among its citizens, lost France the friendship of that country. The Danish and even the Prussian flags experienced endless insults; and a masterpiece of iniquity and impolicy was exhibited in its conduct towards Holland. It was not, says the author, sufficient for the Batavian republic to have assisted us in our conquest of it, to have adopted our form of government, to have given us immense sums of money, to have assigned to us part of its territory, to have subsisted a large French army, and to have broken with England on our account, by which she lost her commerce, without which Holland is no longer itself;—it was not sufficient for the Batavians to have submitted, for the last two years, to a contribution amounting to one-half of their personal revenues, and one-tenth of the rents of their lands:—they must brook the indignity of having French corsairs seize their vessels in their very harbours, under the cannon of their forts. Did they send out succours to their distant colonies, to prevent them from falling into the hands of England? The French ships seized them, and carried them into French ports, where they were condemned as lawful prizes. The judges of the infamous tribunals had, very often, an immediate interest in the adventure which came to be tried before them.

After these and similar details, the writer adds:

* Thus have we shewn, in the vices of the constitution of the year 3, the primary, necessary, and certain causes of its more or less speedy

speedy dissolution. We have followed the gradual developement of these causes in the different crises which they produced, the epochs of the 18th Fructidor, the 22d Floréal, and the 30th Prairial. These catastrophes have conducted us through mournful wrecks, vast ruins, criminal practices, cruel oppressions, great public disasters, and numerous domestic misfortunes, to the 18th Brumaire, when the tables of this impotent constitution, so often profaned, were solemnly broken. - It is for this day to raise us from ignominious debasement, and to realize to us liberty and the republic; which, hitherto, have been only the particular affairs and the exclusive privilege of an ambitious and domineering *coterie*, productive to the nation only of losses, oppressions, misfortunes, and fetters. If the results of this day, which public opinion welcomed with such enthusiasm and gratitude, fail of their object, we are undone; it will be our inevitable destiny to perish amid the anguish and tortures of the execrable regime of 1793; or to return, through all the horrors of civil war, to the point whence we set out in 1789, and to fall again under the monarchical system: no longer confiding, moderate, and gentle as formerly, but absolute, despotic, alive to all the dark suggestions of distrust, seeing none but turbulent slaves to be repressed by terror, and criminals to be punished with death.

• In order that the new social compact may take deep root in our manners, in our habitudes, in our minds, in the whole of our moral and civil existence; in order that it may open to the republic the career of high destinies to which she is called; it is indispensable that it be crowned by a solid and glorious peace. It is peace that will establish tranquillity in our interior, and that will restore the empire of the laws. It is by shewing to foreign powers the force and solidity of our social compact, under the auspices of which the republic forms itself, that we shall induce them, from a regard to their own necessities, their own quiet, and their own preservation, to accept of peace; and it is by peace that this saviour-compact will strengthen itself, acquire the consistency of which it is susceptible, and secure to the people of France all the advantages and benefits which the 18th Brumaire has promised them.

We shall close our review of this interesting work with the following observations.

• If we admit the defects of the discarded constitution to be as fatal as this author asserts, and that he has not exaggerated the malversations of the successive governments; if we grant to him that the constitution existed only in name, that it had ceased to be a legitimate government, that the usurpation was the least crime of the usurpers, that their weakness and profligacy passed all bearing, and that the whole order of things called aloud for change; all this does not affect the nature of the recent revolution; it does not reconcile us to the encampments of St. Cloud, and the feats of the Orangerie. Civil authorities, and representative bodies, (though such more in name than in reality,) yielding to the bayonet, and dispersed by the soldiery, are scenes to be viewed with abhorrence. It is not, however,
for

for us to judge of the situation of France, nor to determine what its necessities required: but we believe that, if ever there was a country in which the public well-fare demanded the suspension of popular rights; and if ever there was a country incapable of any other than a military government; that country was France at the period of which we are speaking. Be this as it may, it cannot be denied that, out of the evil, good has proceeded. If political liberty has disappeared, civil liberty has gained; if the forms of freedom have melted away, the struggles of faction are also at an end; whole bodies are not persecuted, and individuals are not oppressed; the sway of *brigands* does not exist, but men of character and ability fill places of power. Revolutionary proselytism, bigotry, and narrowness, have made way for courtesy, civility, and gallant manners; these have regained their antient residence. The decorations and ornaments, which do not less add life than they lend attractions to society, are again justly appreciated, and restored to proper vogue. Protection and favour are extended to science and letters. The mad ambition of disturbing thrones is at least disavowed, and the love of peace is professed.—For these ameliorations, France and Europe are beholden to the usurpation. We will hope that the same liberal and beneficent spirit, which pervades the internal administration, will display itself in the conduct of external relations; that the chief consul will not belie the professions which he has solemnly made in the face of Europe; and that he will prefer, to the mad attempt of devastating the world, the solid glory of repairing the million-mischiefs which his country has suffered; of reviving industry, agriculture, commerce, arts, manners, religion, and social life; thus paving a sure way for that general pacification for which humanity so strongly pleads, and for that permanent repose which Europe so much requires.

ART. XI. *Annales de Chimie*,—i. e. Chemical Annals, No. 95 to 98.
8vo. Paris. 1800.

THESE numbers do not appear to us calculated to gratify the lovers of chemical science, equally with the generality of the preceding. One of the most interesting papers which they contain is the continuation of the *Analysis of Human Urine*, by M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.—This continuation is confined to the *urée*; of which, azote is the predominant ingredient. Hence it effervesces so long with nitric acid, and furnishes so much ammonia in every mode of decomposition: for, though it contains less hydrogen than many other animal substances, there is more than enough for the formation of this product. The surplus hydrogen is disengaged in combination

tion with a little carbon. This happens in preference to the generation of an oily compound, because the carbon finds oxygen enough to oxygenate it.—All the products, in consequence of the treatment of the *urée* by the principal reagents, are understood from a knowledge of its composition. At the moment when the bond, which ties together its elements, is relaxed, it has a disposition to pass to the state of carbonate of ammonia.

In the conclusion of the paper, some views respecting the application of this analysis to physiology, and the arts, are presented. Although the former cannot be prosecuted to the extent which they merit, except in an appropriate institution, a few insulated observations (say the authors) may teach us what advances the insight already acquired may enable us to make in the path of truth.

When the urine continues too long in the bladder, it acquires an ammoniacal acrimony, which shews itself by a strong smell, and deep brown colour. The horrid pain, sometimes experienced in cases of retention, is here imputed to the formation of ammonia: but this seems questionable.

In old age, when the bladder is deprived (sometimes to a fatal degree) of its irritability and sensibility, the urine becomes ammoniacal, and is discharged turbid and ropy from the mucus which the generated ammonia separates from the acid which, in the healthy state, holds it dissolved. 'The same phænomenon (say the writers) sometimes takes place from the retention consequent on a calculus in the bladder. In these circumstances, the patients, after extreme pain, void a thick glary urine; in which the chemical agency of the generated ammonia, and the putrid alteration of the *urée* in the bladder, cannot be mistaken.' This is ingenious, and deserving of attention: but we cannot overlook the probable secretion of an increased quantity of morbid mucus, in consequence of the stimulation of the bladder.

Process for the Extraction of the Sugar of Beet. By M. ACHARD.—The feasibility of the scheme for obtaining sugar in this way, of which the public has lately heard so much, cannot be ascertained from any facts in the numbers before us. We shall therefore wait for more decisive documents. The first reports, probably, have been much exaggerated.

No. 96. *Experiments on the Alloys of Lead and Tin.* By M. VAUQUELIN.—The result of these experiments, made to determine in what proportion lead may be employed with safety to health, may not be so interesting where pewter is so little employed as it is now in England. Nevertheless, we deem the following facts of sufficient importance to be transcribed. Wine appears to have a stronger action on

lead than vinegar; since within the same time, at the same temperature, and in equal proportion, vinegar did not present very sensible traces of the presence of lead; whereas wines, except where the proportion did not exceed one twentieth, presented slight appearances of this metal.—Tin-vessels separate the colouring matter of wine in the state of a red crimson lake; for this matter, burned in a platina-crucible, left a white residuum, which the author readily discovered to be oxyd of tin. This proves that the colouring part of wine has more affinity with oxyd of tin, than with the other principles of this liquor. It is not, then, the interest of retailers of wine to let it stand too long in tin-vessels, if they would preserve its colour. For the above reason, without doubt, wine-measures of tin are quickly covered with a coloured coating.

M. VAUQUELIN proposes a simple method of ascertaining whether lead, in an alloy, will be attacked by vinegar or wine. It is by putting on the surface a drop of either of these liquors. If at the bottom and on the sides of these drops any white flocculi are formed, it is a proof that the lead does not exist in over-proportion. If, on the contrary, white flocculi, soluble on agitation, do appear, it is a certain sign that the lead will be dissolved.

Report of a Memoir of M. THENART, concerning the different States of Oxyd of Antimony, and its Combinations with sulphurated Hydrogen. By M. GUYTON.—M. THENART finds antimony susceptible of six different states of oxydation; and he offers some remarks which are of importance in the preparation of antimonial medicines. The full paper, we understand, is to appear in the Memoirs of the National Institute.

On a Salt from the Manufacture of M. Payen. By M. VAUQUELIN.—The medicinal properties of this salt having excited some attention, it was examined by M. VAUQUELIN, and was found to be sulfite of soda and sulphur, or *sulphurated sulfite of soda*. It is formed whenever sulphur, united with hydrogen, is presented to the sulphureous acid.

On artificial Cinnabar. By M. MARTIN.—It is here prescribed to melt one part of sulphur in an unglazed pot; to pour (in the way of a shower) two parts of pure mercury on the melted sulphur; and to agitate rapidly with a clay tube. The mass is next to be triturated, and impregnated with a sufficient quantity of nitric acid; and then exposed in a sand-bath to a gentle heat. By sublimation, a fine red chrystalized cinnabar is obtained.

Observations on the Preparation of Plaisters. By M. DEYEUX.—It is pleasing to see the votaries of a science so dignified as chemistry, extending their regard to objects apparently so trivial as that which is considered in the present paper.
Few

Few persons, perhaps, would think it susceptible of remarks so curious as are here offered to the reader. For particulars, however, we must refer to the work,

On Oxygen as a Remedy. By M. GRILLE.—It is here said that persons affected by the itch are cured by working in the mine of manganese at Maçon; and M. GRILLE asserts that an ointment of 6 parts of oxyd of manganese and 16 of oxygen cured this disease sooner than Pringle's ointment. He observes that the usual remedies were at the same time administered. The attempt to account for the effect of working in the mine, by help of the diffusion of oxygen in vapour, appears to us injudicious. If the fact be true, it is more likely to be owing to the fine dust of the ore.

Memoir on the Ammonium of Cobalt, or, on an Acid contained in the grey Oxyd of this Metal usually denominated Saffre. By L. BRUGNATELLI.—This author describes a new acid which he denominates *cobaltic acid*, though he confesses that its base remains to be ascertained. It is procured, among other methods, simply by boiling saffre in water, and it exists therefore ready formed in that substance.

Report by M. FOURCROY concerning the artificial Mineral Waters prepared by M. PAUL.—The list of waters mentioned in this paper amounts to eleven; and, which is more surprizing, some of the liquids are said to contain five and six times their bulk of carbonic acid. There is an oxygenated water which contains half its volume of oxygen gas! an hydrogenated which contains a third! and an hydro-carbonated which contains two thirds! The impregnation is effected by strong compression: but the principal part of the machinery is kept secret. In the proportions of impregnating gases, however, there is reason for supposing that the desire of the manufacturer to extol his goods has produced some exaggeration: since the reporters could not extricate the quantity of gas specified. In the case of the oxygenated water, they could not expel *one third* of the bulk of the oxygen gas with which it was stated by M. PAUL to be impregnated.—Notwithstanding the exaggeration, however, (if such it be,) enough is here brought forwards to shew that prodigious improvements in this branch are practicable; and we hope that our chemists and mechanics will turn their attention to it.

We have left unnoticed several papers which appeared to us to be wholly unimportant, or the nature of which rendered them uninteresting to the English reader.—Nos. 99 and 100 are just come to our hands: but, as we have not time to report their contents, we must reserve them for our next Appendix.

ART. XII. *Nouvelle Methode d'Enseignement, &c. i. e. A new Method of Instruction for early Childhood.* By Madame DE GENLIS. 12mo. pp. 426. Hamburg, &c. 1799. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 5s.

THOUGH designed for a younger class of pupils than the former works of Madame DE GENLIS, this volume is said to be 'the fruit of longer meditation and of more reflection than any that she has before written on the same subject.' The plan is thus explained :

'I have here composed dialogues; a tale, some maxims, and little pieces for children. I have written them with simplicity, always sacrificing imagination to morality, and elegance of style to clearness; which necessarily occasions a continual repetition of words. With regard to detached maxims, I have not endeavoured to offer any that are either new or brilliant: my wish has been to trace the first rudiments of morality; and that these seeds, so precious, should result from the dialogues, &c. to the end that they should make the deeper impression.'

Notwithstanding the simplicity of the language, Madame DE GENLIS could not avoid introducing some words which may be beyond the comprehension of a child of six years old; and she has therefore subjoined a list of those which she thought might require explanation, and has given definitions of them.

Les jeux d'enfans, introduced in the last dialogue, are well devised, by making a play of the necessary employments of common life which children may have hereafter to perform; thus teaching them to rehearse their part well, before they are required to act. It is proposed to do this without loss to other instruction, by contriving that it shall form a part of their recreation.

A new method is recommended for teaching young people to design and to paint; which is by instructing and forming their judgment, before they enter on the *practical* part.

Madame DE GENLIS is of opinion that any child, well educated and perfectly managed from its earliest infancy, would appear a prodigy at twenty years of age. The difficulty consists in making the experiment: but, in the endeavour, much good would probably be produced.

From this brief description, and from the known abilities of Madame DE GENLIS, the reader will perhaps be able to appreciate the utility of this work. An English translation of it has appeared; as also of another recent production of this lady's pen, entitled *La Bruyere the Less*: of which we shall shortly give some account.

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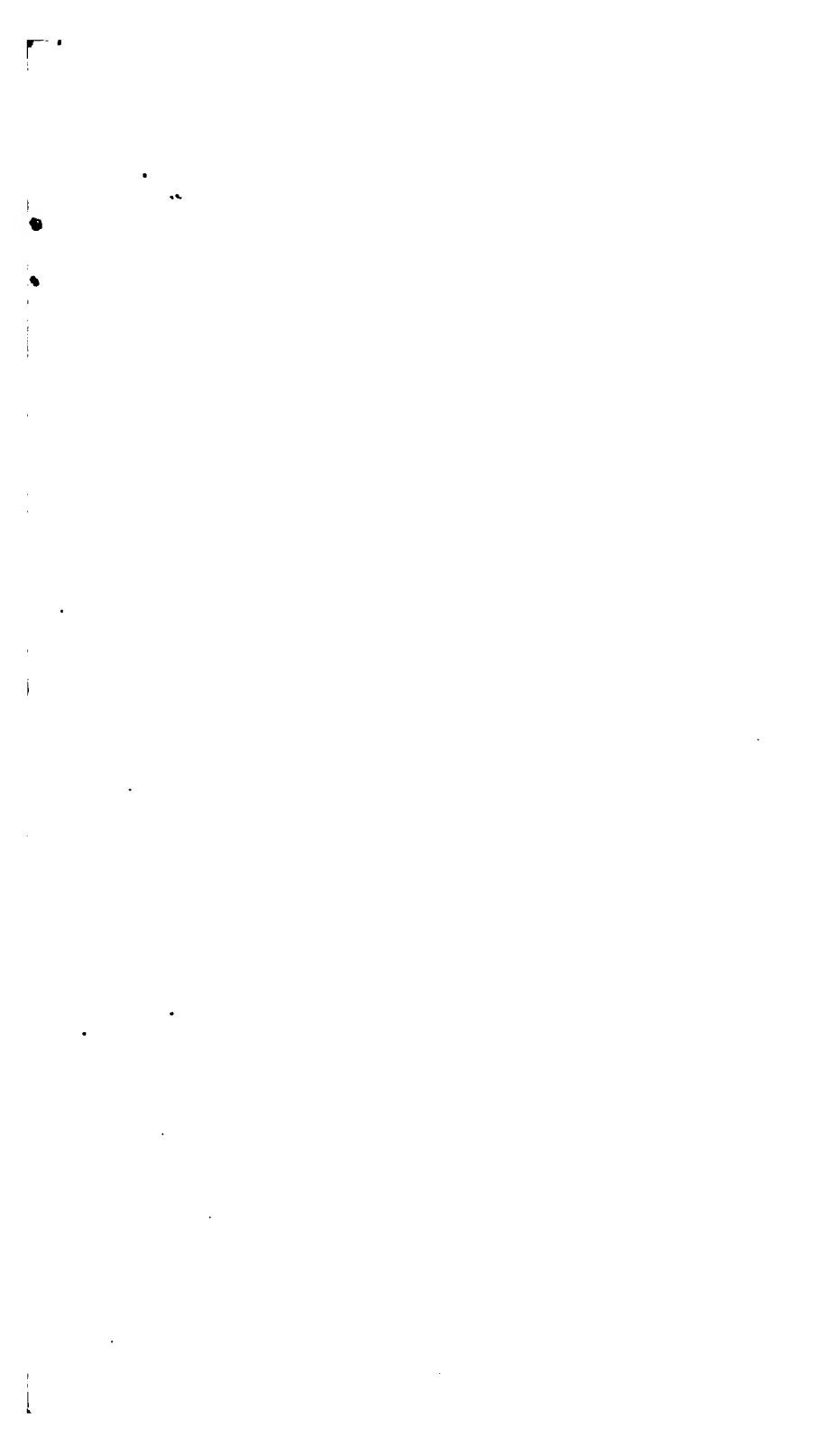
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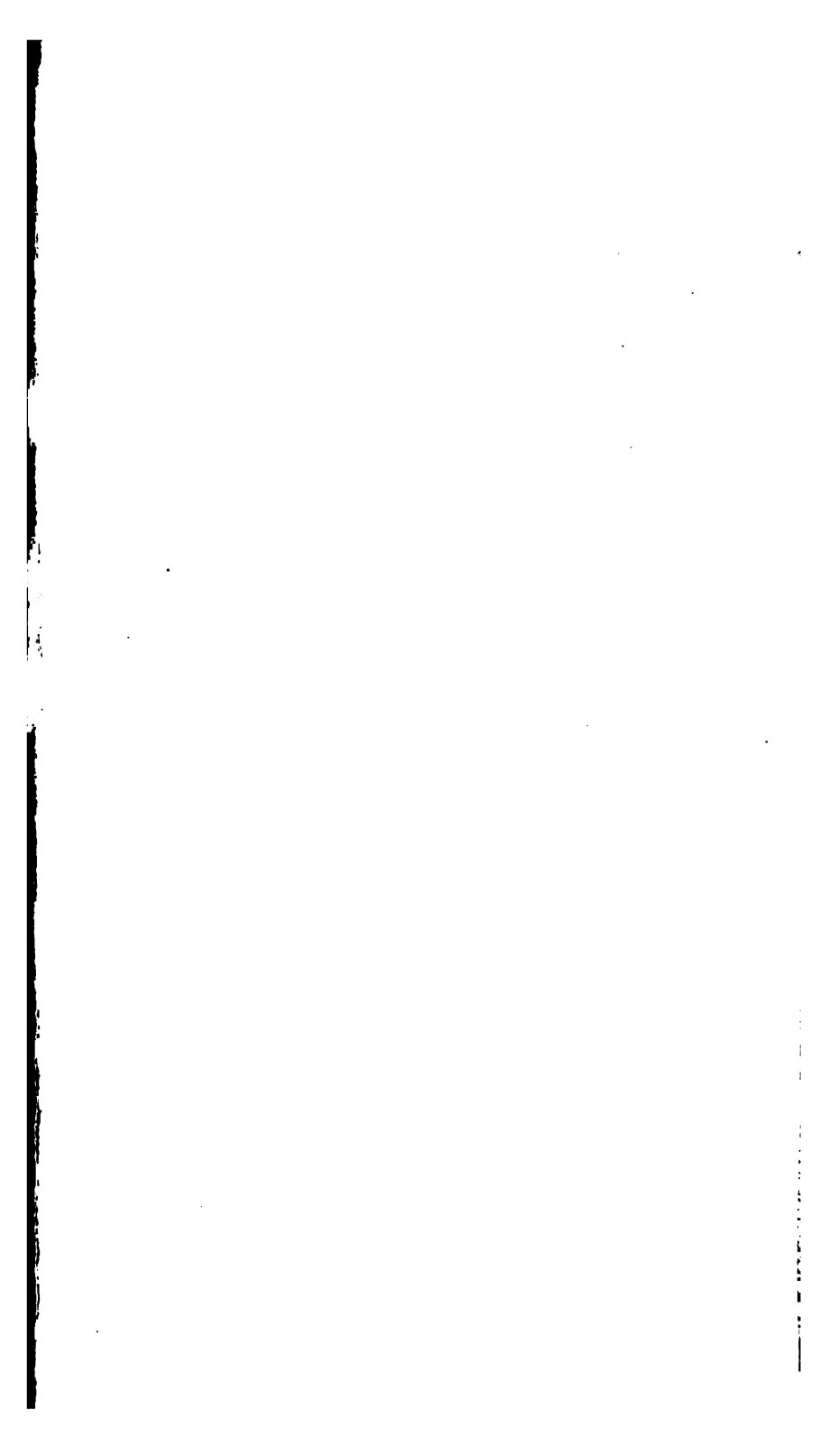
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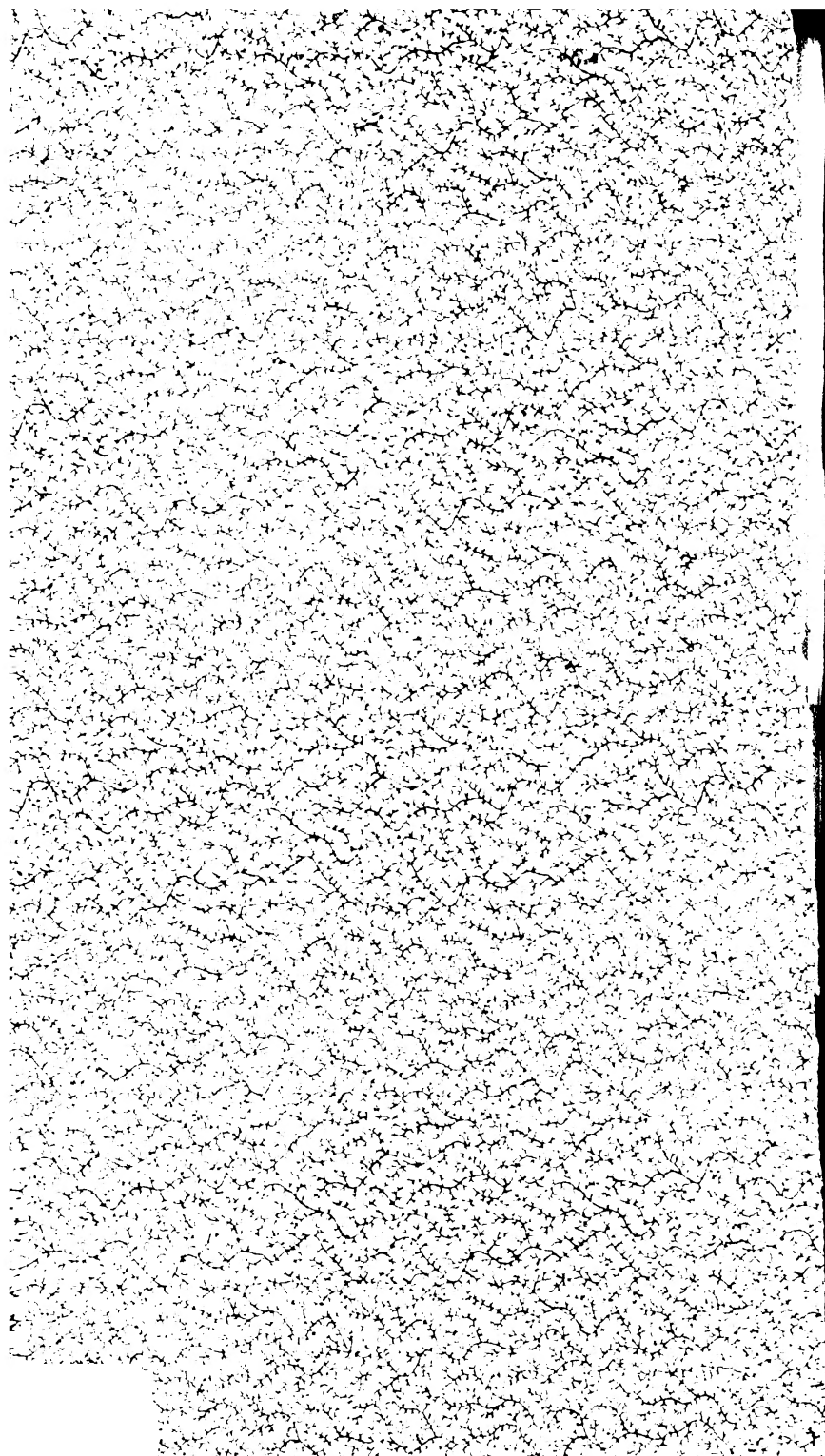
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